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ABSTRACT

The following papers are included: "Facilitating Adult Learning in Graduate Programs" (Bauer); "Toward Synergistic Delivery of Adult Agricultural Education" (Cano, Miller); "Proposing a Needs Assessment Model for Academic Program Development" (Claus); "Preferred Learning Styles of University of Wisconsin External Degree Students and Their Impact on Students' Completion of External Baccalaureate Degree Programs" (Coggins); "Matriarchal Consciousness and the Transformative Adult Learning Group" (Dirkx); "Reading Activities among Older Adults" (Fisher); "Decade of Research Contributions to Adult Basic Education Literature" (Fisher, Martin); "Examining Leadership Styles: Dilemma for Cross-Cultural Adult Educators" (Harder); "Preparing Non-Experienced Teachers of Adults" (Henschke); "Behaviors of Unionized Workers during a Transition in Manufacturing" (Huston, McElhinney); "Study of Human Resource Development Practitioners' Communication Methods in Organizations" (Ihejieto-Aharanwa); "Application of a Modified Delphi Technique in Job Task Analysis for Adult Education" (Korhonen); "Americanization and Assimilation: 1910-1920" (Krischer); "Assessment Centers and Adult Learners" (MacDonald); "Conceptualizing an Environmental Scanning Process for Continuing Education Organizations" (Martin); "Continuing Social and Economic Injustice" (Oaklief); "Continuing Education for Extension Home Economists" (Richardson); "Effect of Instructional Presentation on Student Satisfaction and Performance as Demonstrated in an Electronic Distance Educational Delivery System" (Seamons); "Implications of Recent Research about Trends in Corporate Education for Human Resource Development Practitioners" (Spikes); "Community Leadership" (Vandenberg, Thullen, Fear); "Effect of an Inservice Intervention on Educational Orientation of Part-Time Adult Continuing Education Instructors" (Wegge); "Critical Thinking Ability as a Predictor of Success in a Non-Traditional Master's Degree Program in Adult and Continuing Education" (Widlak); "Environmental Fit on Non-Traditional Undergraduates" (Wilson et al.); "Use of Research and Theory by Ten Successful Adult Education Directors" (Wood); "Measuring Effects of an Interactive Video Adult Literacy Instruction System" (Wood, McElhinney); "Adult Literacy, Cognitive Processes, and Empowerment" (Young); and "Contrasting Cases of Participation/Motivation in an Urban Community Based Training Program and an Adult Education Graduate Class" (Zacharakis-Jutz). (MN)

ED295046

MRPC

The Midwest Research to Practice Conference in Adult and Continuing Education

October 8-9, 1987
Kellogg Center for Continuing Education
Michigan State University
East Lansing, Michigan

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Michigan Association for Adult and Continuing Education
Adult and Continuing Education Graduate Program,
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October 7, 1987

Dear Research-to-Practice Conferees:

We are delighted to welcome you to the Sixth Annual Midwest Research to Practice Conference in Adult and Continuing Education, and to have you as guests on our Michigan State University Campus.

This annual conference has developed a tradition of excellence and we hope to maintain that tradition this year. Both the steering and arrangements committees have worked hard to put together general and concurrent sessions designed to highlight both research issues and findings in our field, and to offer you opportunities to confer with presenters and other conferees. We extend our warmest thanks to the members of both these committees and to the Co-Hosts and Co-Sponsors for the conference.

We sincerely hope you will enjoy this conference, our campus and the Lansing area.

Best Wishes,

Joe Levine Richard Smith Jim Snoddy

S. Joseph Levine Richard J. Smith James E. Snoddy
Conference Co-Chairpersons

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Midwest Research to Practice Conference in Adult and Continuing Education

October 7-9, 1987

The Kellogg Center for Continuing Education
Michigan State University
East Lansing, Michigan

CONFERENCE OVERVIEW

Wednesday, October 7, 1987

5:00- 9:00 pm	Hospitality Time

Thursday, October 8, 1987

9:30- 9:30 am	Registration and Coffee
9:30-10:00 am	Welcome and Introduction to Conference
10:00-11:20 am	General Session
11:30-12:20 am	Concurrent Sessions I
12:20- 2:00 pm	Lunch
2:00- 2:50 pm	Concurrent Sessions II
3:00- 3:50 pm	Concurrent Sessions III
4:00- 4:50 pm	Research Colloquys
5:00- 7:00 pm	Reception

Friday, October 9, 1987

8:30- 9:30 am	Registration and Coffee
9:30-10:20 am	Concurrent Sessions IV
10:30-11:30 am	Concurrent Sessions V
11:30- 1:15 pm	Luncheon and Keynote Address

Midwest Research to Practice Conference
in Adult and Continuing Education

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The Kellogg Center for Continuing Education
Michigan State University
East Lansing, Michigan

CONFERENCE SCHEDULE

WEDNESDAY, OCTOBER 7, 1987

5:00- 9:00 p.m.	HOSPITALITY FOR EARLY ARRIVERS	Room 208-209

Hosted by:
Ann Sterling, Cambridge Book Co.

THURSDAY, OCTOBER 8, 1987

8:30- 9:30 a.m.	REGISTRATION AND COFFEE	Registration Desk & Lincoln Room

NOTE: A hospitality area with refreshments will be available in the vicinity of the Lincoln Room throughout the day.

9:30-11:20 a.m.	OPENING GENERAL SESSION	Lincoln Room

Welcome to Michigan State University

Dr. Marylee Davis, Acting Executive Assistant to the President and Secretary to the Board of Trustees, Michigan State University

Adults Pursuing Self-Directed Learning: An Example From Medicine

Dr. Robert K. Richards, Adjunct Associate Professor and Assistant Dean, College of Human Medicine, Michigan State University

Conference Overview

S. Joseph Levine
Richard J. Smith
James E. Snoddy
Conference Co-chairs

Thursday, October 8, 1987 (cont.)

11:30-12:20 p.m. CONCURRENT SESSIONS I

James C. Fisher	Reading Activities Among Older Adults	Room 107
Lloyd J. Korhonen	The Application of a Modified Delphi Technique in Job Task Analysis for Adult Education	Room 102
Frederick W. Widlack	Critical Thinking Ability as a Predictor of Success in Non-Traditional Master's Degree Program in Adult and Continuing Education.	Vista Room
Bonnie K. Wilson Robert Barrick Kathleen Prochaska-Cue Lavon B. Gappa	Environmental Fit of Non-traditional Undergraduates	Room 110
Kenneth R. Harder	Examining Leadership Styles- A Dilemma for Cross-Cultural Adult Educators.	Room 106

12:20- 2:00 p.m. LUNCH
(Enjoy one of our many East Lansing area restaurants)

2:00- 2:50 p.m. CONCURRENT SESSIONS II

George S. Wood, Jr. James McElhinney	Determining the effects of an Interactive Video Adult Literacy Instruction System.	Room 107
David R. MacDonald	Assessment Centers and Adult Learners: Facilitating Post Assessment Development	Room 102
John M. Dirkx	Matriarchal Consciousness and the Transformative Adult Learning Group.	Room 110
Jeff Zacharakis-Jutz	Contrasting Cases of Participation/Motivation in an Urban Community Based Training Program and an Adult Education Graduate Class.	Vista Room
Larry G. Martin	Conceptualizing an Environment Scanning Process for Continuing Education Organizations.	Room 106

Thursday, October 8, 1987 (cont.)

3:00- 3:50 p.m. CONCURRENT SESSIONS III

James C. Fisher Larry G. Martin	A Decade of Research Contributions to the Adult Basic Education Literature	Room 107
Jay Huston James McElhinney	Behaviors of Unionized Workers During a Transition in Manufacturing.	Room 110
Nancy B. Wegge	The Effect of an Inservice Intervention on the Educational Orientation of Part-Time Adult Continuing Education Instructors.	Vista Room
Charles R. Oaklief	Continuing Social and Economic Injustice: The Adult Education Placebo	Room 102

4:00- 4:50 p.m. RESEARCH COLLOQUYS

Lawrence Berlin	Helping Others Understand the Value of Qualitative Research	Vista Room
LaVerne Luden	Using Personal Computers in Adult Education Research	Room 106
David Boggs	Conducting Adult Education Research on Social Issues	Room 102
Lloyd Korhonen	Organizing a Graduate Program to do Research in Adult and Continuing Education	Room 107
Peter Jarvis	A European Perspective of Adult Education Research	Room 110

5:00- 7:00 p.m. RECEPTION Corniche Room

Co-hosted by:
Michigan Association of Community and Adult Education
Michigan Association for Adult and Continuing Education

FRIDAY, OCTOBER 9, 1987

8:30- 9:30 a.m. REGISTRATION AND COFFEE Registration Desk & Lincoln Room A

Friday, October 9, 1987 (cont.)

NOTE: A hospitality area with refreshments will be available in Lincoln Room A throughout the morning.

9:30-10:20 a.m. CONCURRENT SESSIONS IV

Jamie Cano Larry E. Miller	Toward Synergistic Delivery of Adult Agricultural Education.	Room 110
Clifford O. Ihejieto-Aharamwa	The Study of Human Resource Development Practitioners' Communication Methods in Organizations.	Room 106
Barbara A. Bauer	Facilitating Adult Learning in Graduate Programs.	Vista Room
John Henschke	Preparing Non-Experienced Teachers of Adults: Research Issues.	Room 102
Sachiko K. Claus	Proposing a Needs Assessment Model for Academic Program Development.	Room 107

10:30-11:20 a.m. CONCURRENT SESSIONS V

R. Alan Seamons	The Effects of Instructional Presentation on Student Satisfaction and Performance as Demonstrated in an Electronic Distance Educational (EDE) Delivery System.	Vista Room
W. Franklin Spikes III	Implications of Recent Research About Trends in Corporate Education for Human Resource Development Practitioners.	Room 102
Lela Vandenberg Manfred Thullen Frank Fear	Community Leadership: A Research-Based Theoretical Framework.	Room 107
Chere Campbell Coggins	Preferred Learning Styles of University of Wisconsin External Degree Students and Their Impact on Students' Completion of External Baccalaureate Degree Programs.	Room 110
George Wood, Jr.	The Uses of Research and Theory by Ten Successful Adult Education Program Directors	Room 106

11:30- 1:15 p.m. LUNCHEON WITH KEYNOTE SPEAKER Centennial Room

Social Structure in the Education of Adults: Towards a Comparative Analysis
Dr. Peter Jarvis, Professor
University of Surrey (U.K.)

Presentation of Graduate Student Research Award
Dr. Lawrence Berlin, Professor
University of Michigan

Announcements

CONCURRENT SESSIONS:
PRESENTERS AND PAPERS

Barbara A. Bauer
FACILITATING ADULT LEARNING IN GRADUATE PROGRAMS

Jamie Cano and Larry E. Miller
TOWARD SYNERGISTIC DELIVERY OF ADULT AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION

Sachiko K. Claus
PROPOSING A NEEDS ASSESSMENT MODEL FOR ACADEMIC PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

Chere Campbell Coggins
PREFERRED LEARNING STYLES OF UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN EXTERNAL DEGREE STUDENTS AND THEIR IMPACT ON STUDENTS' COMPLETION OF EXTERNAL BACCALAUREATE DEGREE PROGRAMS

John M. Dirkx
MATRIARCHAL CONSCIOUSNESS AND THE TRANSFORMATIVE ADULT LEARNING GROUP

James C. Fisher
READING ACTIVITIES AMONG OLDER ADULTS

James C. Fisher and Larry G. Martin
A DECADE OF RESEARCH CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE ADULT BASIC EDUCATION LITERATURE

Kenneth R. Harder
EXAMINING LEADERSHIP STYLES: A DILEMMA FOR CROSS-CULTURAL ADULT EDUCATORS

John A. Henschke
PREPARING NON-EXPERIENCED TEACHERS OF ADULTS: RESEARCH ISSUES

Jay T. Huston and James H. McElhinney
BEHAVIORS OF UNIONIZED WORKERS DURING A TRANSITION IN MANUFACTURING

Clifford O. Ihejieto-Aharanwa
THE STUDY OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT PRACTITIONERS' COMMUNICATION METHODS IN ORGANIZATIONS

Lloyd Korhonen
THE APPLICATION OF A MODIFIED DELPHI TECHNIQUE IN JOB TASK ANALYSIS FOR ADULT EDUCATION

Michael Krischer
AMERICANIZATION AND ASSIMILATION: 1910-1920

David R. MacDonald
ASSESSMENT CENTERS AND ADULT LEARNERS: FACILITATING POST-ASSESSMENT DEVELOPMENT

CONCURRENT SESSIONS
PRESENTERS AND PAPERS (CONT.)

Larry G. Martin
CONCEPTUALIZING AN ENVIRONMENTAL SCANNING PROCESS FOR CONTINUING EDUCATION ORGANIZATIONS

Charles R. Oaklief
CONTINUING SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC INJUSTICE: THE ADULT EDUCATION PLACEBO

Doris B. Richardson
CONTINUING EDUCATION FOR EXTENSION HOME ECONOMISTS

R. Alan Seamons
THE EFFECT OF INSTRUCTIONAL PRESENTATION ON STUDENT SATISFACTION AND PERFORMANCE AS DEMONSTRATED IN AN ELECTRONIC DISTANCE EDUCATIONAL (EDE) DELIVERY SYSTEM

W. Franklin Spikes, III
IMPLICATIONS OF RECENT RESEARCH ABOUT TRENDS IN CORPORATE EDUCATION FOR HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT PRACTITIONERS

Lela Vandenberg, Manfred Thullen and Frank Fear
COMMUNITY LEADERSHIP: A RESEARCH-BASED THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Nancy B. Wegge
THE EFFECT OF AN INSERVICE INTERVENTION ON THE EDUCATIONAL ORIENTATION OF PART-TIME ADULT CONTINUING EDUCATION INSTRUCTORS

Fredrick W. Widlak
CRITICAL THINKING ABILITY AS A PREDICTOR OF SUCCESS IN A NON-TRADITIONAL MASTER'S DEGREE PROGRAM IN ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

Bonnie K. Wilson, Robert Barrick, Kathleen Prochaska-Cue and Lavon R. Gappa
ENVIRONMENTAL FIT ON NON-TRADITIONAL UNDERGRADUATES

George S. Wood, Jr.
THE USE OF RESEARCH AND THEORY BY TEN SUCCESSFUL ADULT EDUCATION DIRECTORS

George S. Wood, Jr. and James H. McElhinney
MEASURING THE EFFECTS OF AN INTERACTIVE VIDEO ADULT LITERACY INSTRUCTION SYSTEM

Deborah L. Young
ADULT LITERACY, COGNITIVE PROCESSES, AND EMPOWERMENT

Jeff Zacharakis-Jutz
CONTRASTING CASES OF PARTICIPATION/MOTIVATION IN AN URBAN COMMUNITY BASED TRAINING PROGRAM AND AN ADULT EDUCATION GRADUATE CLASS

FACILITATING ADULT LEARNING IN GRADUATE PROGRAMS

Barbara A. Bauer, Ed.D.

Assistant Professor
College Student Personnel
Adult Learner Focus

Bowling Green State University
326 Education Building
Bowling Green, Ohio 43403

Abstract

Facilitating Adult Learning in Graduate Programs

Barbara A. Bauer

The Adult Education Guided Independent Study (AEGIS) program is an experimental instructional format alternative to the traditional doctoral program in the Adult and Continuing Education specialization in the Department of Higher and Adult Education at Teachers College, Columbia University. It has been in existence since September 1981.

This case study documented the first four developmental years of this innovative and non-traditional program of doctoral study within the infrastructure of a traditional graduate institution. Methodologies used to accomplish the study were participant observation, documentary analysis and interviewing. Representatives from the three primary constituent groups (students, faculty and College administrators) were interviewed regarding their perceptions and opinions of the program.

Program delivery functions are described as they interface administratively with the larger institution. Program development areas of curriculum, course structure and sequencing, and instruction and advisement, are also presented.

Based on the findings, conclusions were drawn and recommendations made for the AEGIS program itself, Teachers College and other graduate institutions of education who have adult learners as their majority population. These pertain to the levels of self-directedness of the participants, the facilitation of critical reflectivity, early dissertation planning and scheduling format, and adaptation of the program in other institutions.

The most important conclusion pertains to the responsibility of graduate institutions seeking to change delivery and format of their programs in order to attract and serve adult clientele. Because of intensity of the personal professional commitment necessary in innovative program development, institutions must provide stronger support to faculty in substantive areas of tenure criteria, monetary reward, and adjustment of teaching and administrative load.

Implications for further research are also outlined.

FACILITATING ADULT LEARNING IN GRADUATE PROGRAMS

Barbara A. Bauer

While most participants in graduate education can be classified as adults, few graduate programs perceive themselves as being involved in "adult education." If they did, they would have to take seriously the abundant signals sent by researchers in adult development and learning, experienced adult education professionals, and adult students themselves that lecture-based classrooms and nine-to-five student services do not meet the needs of adult learners.

As the degree level requirement rises in fields of practice and more adults are returning to formal education for continuing professional growth, colleges and universities need to rethink and redesign their curricula and services to facilitate effective lifelong learning. The Adult Education Guided Independent Study (AEGIS) program was an attempt to accomplish this goal, and my case study documented its first four developmental years, with a focus upon the administrative and academic support systems that allowed the program to exist within the academic infrastructure of a traditional institution of graduate education.

Program Description. At its inception in 1981 at Columbia University Teachers College, this program was an experimental instructional format alternative to the traditional doctoral program in the adult and continuing education specialization. It was envisioned and implemented by Dr. Jack Mezirow, senior Professor of Adult Education and coordinator of that field of study at Teachers College. Professor Mezirow had long been uncomfortable in the conviction that gradute instruction in adult education did not necessarily embody the principles of adult education, nor was it generally representative of what adult education theory propounds. Central to these tenets was the belief that adults are self-directed learners, and as such, need to assume responsibility for the design, conduct and evaluation of their learning experiences.

The AEGIS program as envisioned would foster this type of adult learning, chiefly through the use of learning contracts and early dissertation planning. Students would initiate their own projects which would meet course requirements and fit as sections of their dissertations.

A further dimension, added from Professor Mezirow's own philosophy of adult education, sought to facilitate critical reflectivity by helping participants become aware and examine the assumptions upon which their practice is based. Ways of achieving this included focused group discussion and course activities during the seminar meetings, and constructive narrative critiques of participants' written work on professional practice and theoretical literature. Thus, while providing occasions for experiencing self-directed learning in doctoral study, the program would be helping participants clear the paths of "cultural distortion or self-deception" (AEGIS Program Booklet, 1983, p. 2), which could otherwise inhibit their full exercise of self-directedness.

Within these central concepts providing the nucleus of the program's design, another main feature, concentrated on the delivery of the program, was added. Participants, all active and committed senior professionals in the field of adult education, would not be asked to attend weekly classes over the course of several semesters. Instead, they would attend monthly all-day seminars during each of four consecutive academic semesters (Fall, Spring), and two 3-week summer sessions, each following a Spring semester. This allowed people outside reasonable commuting distance to participate without leaving their jobs or moving their homes, and to fulfill the summer residency requirement during vacation weeks. All courses were set up on a Pass/Fail grading basis, with extensive narrative evaluations by faculty substituting for letter-grade evaluations; and advisement occurred by mail, telephone and in person. Instead of tuition being assessed per credit hour, a flat-fee tuition plan was activated.

Methodology. This study was accomplished through use of participant observation, documentary analysis and in-depth interviewing. As administrator of the program since its first group of participants was enrolled in September, 1981, I had ample opportunity for participation in program development and for first-hand observation, as well as access to all program and College documents related to the program. Three groups within Teachers College were targeted for interviewing: key College administrators who had most direct contact with the program (i.e., current and former Presidents, former and current academic deans, associate dean, registrar, division director, and former and current department chairmen); full and part-time AEGIS faculty, along with two members of the AEGIS Advisory Committee; and representative participants from each of the first four entering cohorts. In all, twenty-eight interviews were conducted. Interview questions were designed to elicit perspectives, expectations and opinions regarding central program issues.

Program Development Issues. The content and sequencing of AEGIS courses was changed considerably over the time period studied in order to bring outcomes in line with curricular priorities. These included: provision of core doctoral courses in adult education and relevant extra-departmental courses, the fostering of self-directed learning and critical awareness, opportunities for prior learning assessment, exposure to learning contracts and methods of qualitative research, early dissertation planning, preparation for certification exams and overall facilitation of rapid progress. Regular participant and faculty evaluation provided immediate feedback regarding the effectiveness of design and implementation.

The sequencing of the learning contract and dissertation planning activities were among the features most in need of adjustment. Since learning contract products were to serve as sections of the dissertation, the choice of the dissertation topic and research design had to take place early enough in the program so that the contracts could be planned to fit. By the fourth year, the sequence was fairly well settled to maximize early dissertation planning and related contract involvement within the six sessions given for the completion of forty-five credits. Other curricular issues studied were: instruction and advisement, methods of evaluating participant progress, recruiting appropriate faculty and staff, attendance requirements, grading, assignments, incomplete work, and resuming doctoral study after a period of "stopping out."

Program Delivery Issues. The AEGIS program began as an experimental part of an already established specialization within a department of an academic division of Teachers College. As such, it had to function within the infrastructure of the institution. In some cases, services already existing to fill the needs of the majority of weekly-commuter students could be utilized. In most cases, provision had to be made to accommodate a "go-between" role, or delivery systems had to be invented to meet the needs of these once-monthly campus visitors. A full-time position in the adult education office was instituted to develop and coordinate the various administrative services called for by the special nature of the program. These included recruitment, admissions, tuition payment, orientation, registration, policies of withdrawal and stopping out, doctoral status and certification, scheduling of dissertation defenses, bookstore hours, residence hall accommodations, financial aid, setting up a special academic calendar, and seminar scheduling.

In most of these areas, original handling methods were proposed, tried, evaluated and changed as needed to increase efficiency and diminish student anxiety and frustration. Constant tinkering seemed to be the order of most days in response to regular feedback from participants and campus offices.

Perceptions. Interviewees were asked to give their opinions on the effectiveness of four central features of the AEGIS program. These findings are reported here:

1) On the facilitation of self-directed learning, responses distinguished between participants' entry-level skills and the ability of the program to enhance them.
    a) Most respondents thought the program succeeded in facilitating growth when entry-level skills were good, but that it was less successful in coping with those whose entry skills were low. The suggestion was made that more reliable ways to identify the levels of self-directedness needed to be found and used as a screening tool or as a diagnostic tool.
    b) Program constituents perceived contradictions between those features which facilitate self-directed learning (e.g., learning contracts) and those which impede (e.g., rapid cohort movement through a highly structured sequence of courses and the absence of any electives).
2) The facilitation of rapid progress through early dissertation planning was perceived as a superior feature of the program by all respondents. It was seen to address the most serious weakness in traditional graduate education: late dissertation planning. Problems in implementation related to placement of dissertation planning activities were worked out in the course of the first four years.
3) While the program was perceived to foster critical thinking skills, most respondents expressed the need for more explanation, direction, and guided practice in developing them. Some thought that the program's fast pace inhibited real critical analysis.

4) While most interviewees found the one-day monthly meeting schedule to be satisfactory, several expressed the need for more group contact hours in order to deal with important content issues.

Conclusions. The AEGIS program appears to have succeeded in its practical goals. Each year since 1981, it has attracted a cohort of dedicated professionals in adult education who have been able to take increasing control in planning their own learning experiences, examining their practice of adult education, critically analyzing their assumptions about themselves as adult educators and about their clientele, and investigating problems and theories in the broader field of adult education. The attempt to maximize self-directed learning opportunities within a rigid curricular structure is effective. (This particular feature of the program has been discussed in a chapter in Self-Directed Learning: From Theory to Practice, New Directions for Continuing Education, No. 25.) The academic calendar of once-monthly all-day meetings and two 3-week summer sessions has served to provide the contact necessary with the College, AEGIS faculty, staff and peer groups, while allowing participants to pursue their independent study in the interim periods. Support services effectively interface with other College offices.

Faculty have designed a course sequence that introduces participants to early dissertation planning, helps them to prepare learning contracts and gives them the choice of implementing the contracts for use in their dissertations as well as for course requirements. Faculty have created course syllabi to present content meaningfully within the time frame.

The intensity that this process has demanded from all persons directly involved cannot be overstated. The adult participants have not been able to put the rest of their lives on hold for the two to three years it takes them to complete the program. Faculty have spent long hours discussing the refining the curriculum, program policies and instructional methodologies as well as taught AEGIS and regular courses, read and evaluated written assignments, advised students by telephone and in person on coursework and dissertation planning, and served as dissertation sponsors and readers. For junior faculty members, there is also the mandate for research and publication on the way to a tenure bid.

Implications for Graduate Education. This case study sought to document an innovative doctoral program designed to meet the needs of a particular adult clientele. While it would be impossible to replicate the program exactly elsewhere, certain implications can be drawn for other graduate programs and for graduate education in general.

1) Existing graduate policies that affect students' progress through the stages of graduate study can be examined and refined to accommodate the needs of adult students. Among these are scheduling of classes, availability of student services to evening and weekend student populations, the placement of dissertation planning, and the relevance of letter grades and certification examinations.

2) A graduate college can emphasize concern for meeting adult needs by establishing a central office or administrator to help academic divisions and departments explore, fund and implement innovations of this kind.
3) A graduate college should insure that junior faculty who extend themselves beyond their teaching and research into new program development are not penalized but rather rewarded when the time comes for tenure review.
4) Faculty development programs could allow interested professors from other departments to work as guests in innovative programs after a period of preparation with the host department, thereby sharing the burden and intensity.
5) Faculty who teach and research in areas of adult development and learning can be called upon to take a leadership role in enlightening the university community on various aspects to be considered in program development and administration for an adult population.
6) Adult students themselves can be called on to share in the planning for the "re-design of the educational establishment" (Apps, 1981, p. 220) by eliciting their input through curriculum committees and assessment endeavors.

Other implications relate to further research that is needed. How can principles of adult education be incorporated into central administration practices in graduate schools of education? What is the relation, if any, of entry-level skills in self-directed learning to success in doctoral study? What are other ways of identifying self-directed learners and/or skills in self-directed learning besides the tests that have been designed? What problems do successful professionals experience with self-concept and self-esteem in returning to "student status?" What are specific learning problems associated with the use of learning contracts? What effects could the role change from lecturer to facilitator have upon faculty? What are the transference capabilities of the AEGIS approach to other graduate programs in adult education and other disciplines?

References:

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Teachers College, Columbia University. (1983). AEGIS Program Booklet.

TOWARD SYNERGISTIC DELIVERY OF ADULT AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION

Jamie M. Cano
Graduate Research Associate

Larry E. Miller
Professor

204 Agricultural Administration Building
2120 Fyffe Road
The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio 43210

The purpose of this study was to determine the status of the current efforts in delivering adult agricultural education in order to propose a more effective educational delivery system. Specifically, the objectives of the study were to: 1) determine the status of adult education offerings in agriculture by the Cooperative Extension Service, public schools, and related agencies; 2) determine why adult education programs are not offered by some school systems; 3) ascertain the need for adult education programs in agriculture; and, 4) project the number of persons who would participate in adult education programs in agriculture. An urban and a rural county were selected for this study and a random sample was drawn from the farmer population and the agribusinesses in the respective counties.

The following are the conclusions: Farmers perceive the Cooperative Extension Service as the purveyor of their educational needs; agribusiness owner/managers perceive product line companies as the deliverer of their educational needs; agribusiness employee educational needs should be delivered by Joint Vocational Schools; the primary reason some public schools do not offer adult agricultural education courses is because the courses are being offered by other agencies; respondents perceive that benefits resulted to all those who attended adult education classes; participation in adult education classes is perceived to enhance job advancement possibilities; agribusiness employers indicated that most employees need new knowledge and skills in agriculture; and, the majority of the farmers, agribusiness owner/managers, and agribusiness employees will participate in adult agricultural education classes during the coming year.

CONTACT PERSON: Jamie Cano

TOWARD SYNERGISTIC DELIVERY OF ADULT AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION

INTRODUCTION

Adult agricultural education is offered by a wide variety of agencies (Knowles, 1969). Although each agency tries to serve a selected population, there is considerable overlap of services and activities (Marshall, 1978). If educational planners were to communicate their offerings and services, the programs in adult agricultural education could improve, since duplication of services might be reduced (Hilton, 1979).

By identifying the deliverers of adult agricultural education, the clientele served, and their respective needs; educational planners will better be able to develop programs which reflect the projected educational needs of farmers and agribusiness personnel in the future. In turn, through articulation between educational planners of various purveyors of education, duplication of services should be reduced and ultimately avoided (Hilton, 1979).

PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES

The purpose of this study was to determine the status of the current delivery of adult agricultural education in order to examine alternative educational delivery systems in an effort to reduce duplication of services by delivery agencies.

The objectives of this portion of the study were to: 1) determine the status of adult education offerings in agriculture by the Ohio Cooperative Extension Service, public schools, and related agencies; 2) determine why adult education programs are not offered by some school systems; 3) ascertain the needs for adult education programs in agriculture; and, 4) project the number of persons who would participate in adult education programs in agriculture.

METHODOLOGY

The data were collected by a mailed questionnaire from a random sample of farmers and agribusinesses in Clark and Knox County, Ohio. Through the use of personal interviews, the survey data were supplemented to improve the richness and depth of the data collected. Non-respondent bias was controlled as were the other threats to external validity. The instruments were content validated by a panel of experts. The internal consistency for the farmers' instrument was $\alpha = .88$, and for the agribusinesses was $\alpha = .81$.

RESULTS

Status of Adult Education Offerings in Agriculture

The majority of farmers (74.0 percent) have participated in adult agricultural education classes. Sixty percent of the agribusiness owner/mangers reported that they had enrolled in adult agricultural education classes as a participant.

In regards to which agency should provide the educational services to the farmers, the Cooperative Extension Service was ranked by farmers as the most important agency (Table 1). The agribusinesses were ranked the lowest.

Tables 2 and 3 present rankings of agencies that agribusiness owner/mangers perceive should provide educational service to their employees and to them respectively. A numerical ranking of one to six was used with one being perceived most important and six being perceived the least important. Agribusiness owner/managers indicated that Joint Vocational Schools should provide educational services to their employees and that product line companies (John Deere, Dekalb, Marathon) should provide educational services to them. Also, agribusiness owner/managers perceive that high schools were the least important agency that should provide educational services to them and their employees.

Status of Adult Agricultural Education in Public Schools

Through the use of personal interviews, approximately 61 percent of the vocational agriculture teachers stated the primary reason for not offering adult education classes was that the classes were already being offered by other agencies (Table 4).

Need For Adult Education In Agriculture

Approximately 75 percent of the farmers reported that there was a need for adult education classes in agriculture. Approximately 76 percent of the agribusiness owner/ managers responded in favor of a need for adult education classes in agriculure.

Tables 5 and 6 present the mean and standard deviation scores to the top five rated statements which ascertained the needs for adult education programs in agriculture perceived by farmers and agribusiness owner/managers. A numerical rating scale was used for measurement of the perceived educational needs. The scale for this study employed a rating system of does not apply (12), strongly agree (10), agree (9, 8, 7), slightly agree (6), slightly disagree (5), disagree (4, 3, 2), and strongly disagree (1).

Projected Participation in Adult Education in Agriculture

Approximately 65 percent of the farmers, 70 percent of the employees, and 62 percent of the agribusiness owner/managers indicated that they plan to participate in adult agricultural education classes during the coming year.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The following conclusions about objective one can be made: 1) The Ohio Cooperative Extension Service is the agency perceived by farmers as the most important agency which should deliver adult education programs in agriculture to them and that agribusinesses should be the least important; 2) Agribusiness owner/managers reported that Joint Vocational Schools should be the most important purveyor of education for their employees and that high schools should be the least important; and, 3) Agribusiness owner/managers perceive that product line companies such as John Deere and Dekalb should be the most important deliverer of adult education programs in agriculture to them and that high schools should be the least important.

The following conclusions about objective two can be formulated: 1) The primary reason that teachers reported for not having adult education programs in agriculture was because the classes were already being offered by other agencies; and 2) Other reasons that teachers reported for not having adult education programs in agriculture was because they take too much time, there is a lack of enrollment, and the teachers are not paid enough for the services.

The following conclusions about objective three can be drawn: 1) A large majority of the farmers and agribusiness owner/managers have a felt need for adult education programs in agriculture; 2) A need exists because respondents reported they are never too old to learn; 3) Jobs on the farm and at the places of business are becoming more complex; and, 4) Farmers and agribusiness owner/managers need to be kept up-to-date on new technology.

The following conclusions about objective four can be made: 1) The majority of the farmers indicated that they plan to participate in adult education programs in agriculture during the coming year; 2) A large number of agribusiness employees would attend adult education classes in agriculture if asked by the employer; and, 3) The majority of agribusiness owners/managers stated that they plan to participate in adult education classes in agriculture during the coming year.

The following recommendations are forwarded: 1) The Ohio Cooperative Extension Service should serve as coordinator and facilitator of adult education programs in agriculture for the farmers; 2) Joint Vocational Schools should serve as coordinators and facilitators of adult education programs in agriculture for agribusiness employees; 3) Product line companies should serve as the purveyors of the educational needs of agribusiness owner/managers; and, 4) Public schools should offer alternative classes not being offered by other agencies in an effort to establish themselves in providing adult education programs in agriculture.

RESEARCH TO PRACTICE

To achieve the portion of the purpose of this study of proposing alternative educational delivery systems, a commission will be formed to recommend guidelines for pilot efforts for the delivery of adult agriculture education. This segment of the total project will hopefully be carried out in the near future.

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TABLES

Table 1

Ranking of Agencies Which Should Provide Educational Service to Farmers

Agency	Mean	SD
Ohio Cooperative Extension Service	2.49	1.60
Joint Vocational Schools	3.39	1.54
Colleges and Universities	3.43	1.68
High Schools	3.78	1.93
Technical Schools	3.96	1.29
Agribusinesses	3.97	1.73

Table 2

Ranking of Agencies Which Should Provide Educational Services to Agribusiness Employees

Agency	Mean	SD
Joint Vocational School	2.95	1.39
Ohio Cooperative Extension Service	3.28	1.74
Vocational Technical School	3.43	1.46
Product Line Companies	3.50	2.12
Colleges and Universities	3.56	1.75
High Schools	3.74	1.84

Table 3

Ranking of Agencies Which Should Provide Educational Services to Agribusiness Owner/Managers

Agency	Mean	SD
Product Line Companies	2.56	1.84
Colleges and Universities	2.69	1.64
Ohio Cooperative Extension Service	2.89	1.58
Joint Vocational Schools	3.79	1.52
Vocational Technical Schools	3.82	1.33
High Schools	4.63	1.72

Table 4

Reasons Why Adult Agricultural Education Classes Are Not Offered By School Systems

Reason	f	%
Classes offered by other agencies	11	61.1
Takes too much of my time	4	22.2
Lack of enrollment	2	12.3
Not enough pay for the services	1	5.4
Total	18	100.0

Table 5

Farmers Agreement To Statements Regarding Adult Education In Agriculture

Statement	Mean	SD
1. I am never too old to learn.	9.46	1.71
2. Job becoming more complex	8.84	2.32
3. Need to be kept up-to-date	8.42	2.69
4. OCES programs highly beneficial	8.33	2.54
5. Take part yearly to stay current	8.18	2.91

Table 6

Agribusiness Owner/Managers Agreement To Statements Regarding Adult Education In Agriculture

Statement	Mean	SD
1. Employees are never too old to learn	9.53	1.27
2. Employees require constant participation in educational programs to remain current	8.76	2.07
3. Employees need to know of technical advances in area of employment	8.43	2.34
4. Employees should participate in adult education classes during the next year	8.38	2.47
5. Technical schools should offer more classes	8.34	2.40

Proposing a Needs Assessment Model
For
Academic Program Development

Sachiko K. Claus

Assistant Professor
Saginaw Valley State College

2250 Pierce Rd.,
University Center, MI., 48710

Abstract

The purpose of this paper was to propose a model for conducting a needs assessment for academic program planning. Although the merits of the use of needs assessment in educational programing is widely reported in the literature, it is often conducted inappropriately in practice. In order to properly conduct the needs assessment, the definition of need must be clarified and a suitable model should be identified. The model employed in this paper resulted from an application of the needs assessment model for the proposed Masters in Nursing Program at Saginaw Valley State College. This study was conducted in 1987 in the area within a fifty-mile radius from the college. In order to assess needs as well as resources three data collection methods were used: task force groups, surveys, and social indicators. An evaluation of the process and outcome of the study was also conducted to enhance the validity and reliability of the information obtained.

The application of a need assessment model for this study resulted in the revised model that included steps in preparation, dissemination and use of needs assessment information. The process of monitoring the organizational readiness or climate was also added to the model. The revised model is proposed as a comprehensive needs assessment model for further use by adult educators.

Proposing a Needs Assessment Model
For
Academic Program Development

Sachiko K. Claus
Saginaw Valley State College
School of Nursing and Allied Health Sciences

Running Head: Proposing a Needs Assessment Model

Proposing a Needs Assessment Model
For
Academic Program Development

In preparing for the development of an academic program, a feasibility study or needs assessment regarding the needs and resources is the first step in this process.

Although the literature of adult education advocates the use of a feasibility study in program development (Knowles, 1980, Pennington, 1987), the approaches used in practice are often inadequate. Many practitioners resort to a single source of data, while others utilize only one data collection method. Assessment of resources, both internal and external are often excluded from the study (Epstein, 1978).

A feasibility study provides the basis for decisions as to whether or not the proposed program is needed and valued by the constituent, and also whether or not sufficient resources and support exist to successfully implement the program. In order to provide the decision-maker with valid and useful information, the study requires the appropriate model and an efficient methodology. Adopting a model that is in consort with the goals of the study is crucial to the validity and utility of the study outcome.

The purpose of this paper is to propose a model in conducting a feasibility study for academic program development. The proposed model is based on the combination of several models, which was applied to conduct a feasibility study for the proposed program leading to a Masters of Science in Nursing (MSN) at Saginaw Valley State College (SVSC). The model will be discussed primarily for its utility for further application by adult educators.

Two primary research questions identified for this study relates to whether or not there is substantial needs and resources for the proposed program, and also whether or not the study was conducted appropriately. Subsidiary questions were identified for each of these questions.

The literature on needs assessment or feasibility studies reveal an array of terms and approaches. Some authors discriminate the use of the term feasibility study from needs assessment, the former being much more comprehensive than the latter, while others use these two terms interchangeably. For this paper, this author considers these terms synonymous, implying a comprehensive study.

Several needs assessment models are described in the literature. Differences among the models primarily depend on how need is defined. Kaufman's Organizational Element Model is based on the definition that a need is a gap between what is and what should be. (Kaufman & English, 1978). Stufflebeam et. al. (1985) adopt the definition of a need as something necessary or useful for defensible purpose. This definition is based on the assumption that needs do not exist per se but rather are the outcome of human judgments, values, and interactions within a given context. In transactional model, Raines (1977) defines needs as having two primary dimensions: individual, and societal. Educational needs are considered to be the result of complex interaction between these two dimensions. The term transactional comes from the use of Nominal Group Process to facilitate the transactions among the group members and gathering information.

The group method, survey, and social indicators are three primary methods of needs assessment (Witkin, 1984). Although the survey method is the most popular one (Roth, 1978), the group method and social indicators are also reported as valuable methods. Each of the three methods is used alone or in combination with the other two methods. In comprehensive studies, the survey method is often combined with the other two data collection methods (Witkin, 1984).

The choice of needs assessment models and approaches should be guided by the purposes and the context of the assessment, and the decisions to be made (Witkin, 1984).

Method

In order to decide on an appropriate needs assessment model, the following preparatory steps were taken as suggested by Stufflebeam, et.al.(1984): 1. Define need; 2. Identify scope and purpose; 3. Pose research questions.

The model employed in conducting the feasibility study for the proposed MSN program at SVSC was as follows. In order to design a comprehensive feasibility study, a model that accommodates several definitions of needs was proposed: i.e., the definitions by Kaufman, Stufflebeam, and Raines.

The study was conducted over a fifty-mile radius surrounding the college. The first step began with a series of task force groups each consists of key informants representing particular constituent group. The Nominal Group Process was used to facilitate the data gathering process. The second step involved two surveys (i.e., the Potential Student Survey, N = 291, and the Potential Employer Survey, N=35). Analysis of the social indicators was the third step. Each step was evaluated concurrently using an instrument developed by the Joint Committee of Standards for Educational Evaluation.

Results and Discussion

An evaluation of the design, process, and outcome of this study revealed that the model applied was adequate and useful for determining feasibility. One of the advantages of this model was that it allowed an involvement of a wide variety of constituent groups. Another advantage was that it provided rich information, both qualitative and quantitative, through the use of three data collection methods. Using more than one data collection method increased the validity of information obtained through the other method. The Task Force Method which preceded the survey identified the type of information to be asked in the survey, as well as the appropriate description for the survey questionnaires.

Raines (1977) suggests that a community or constituency survey is best undertaken after the transactional group approach has been used, because neither a pencil nor an interview survey is effective in diagnosing the needs. This method also provided valuable data within a short period of time. On the other hand, the survey method is useful in verifying the extent to which previously diagnosed needs exist within a particular group. Similarity of information between the group method and the survey method were also identified.

Social indicators are demographic and statistical data that identify the size and characteristics of population groups with particular needs, the symptoms of those needs, and the scope of a problem, (Witkin, 1984). Social indicators collected in this study included the demographic and health related statistics that relate to the types and characteristics of health care services that could be provided by the potential graduates of the proposed MSN program. The use of an evaluation instrument which appraised the entire process of the study provided credibility for the overall finding of this study.

During the course of the study however, it became evident that two major elements of the needs assessment were not explicit in the model. Raines (1986) emphasized that a comprehensive needs assessment not only assesses the needs and resources perceived by the constituent members, but also assesses the actual resources. The organizational readiness to support the program must also be monitored. The model also did not include the dissemination of information and the use of information as the part of the needs assessment. Although these elements were addressed during the evaluation process, they were not explicit in the model from the outset. Including these elements as a discreet part of the model should lead to a more comprehensive model of needs assessment.

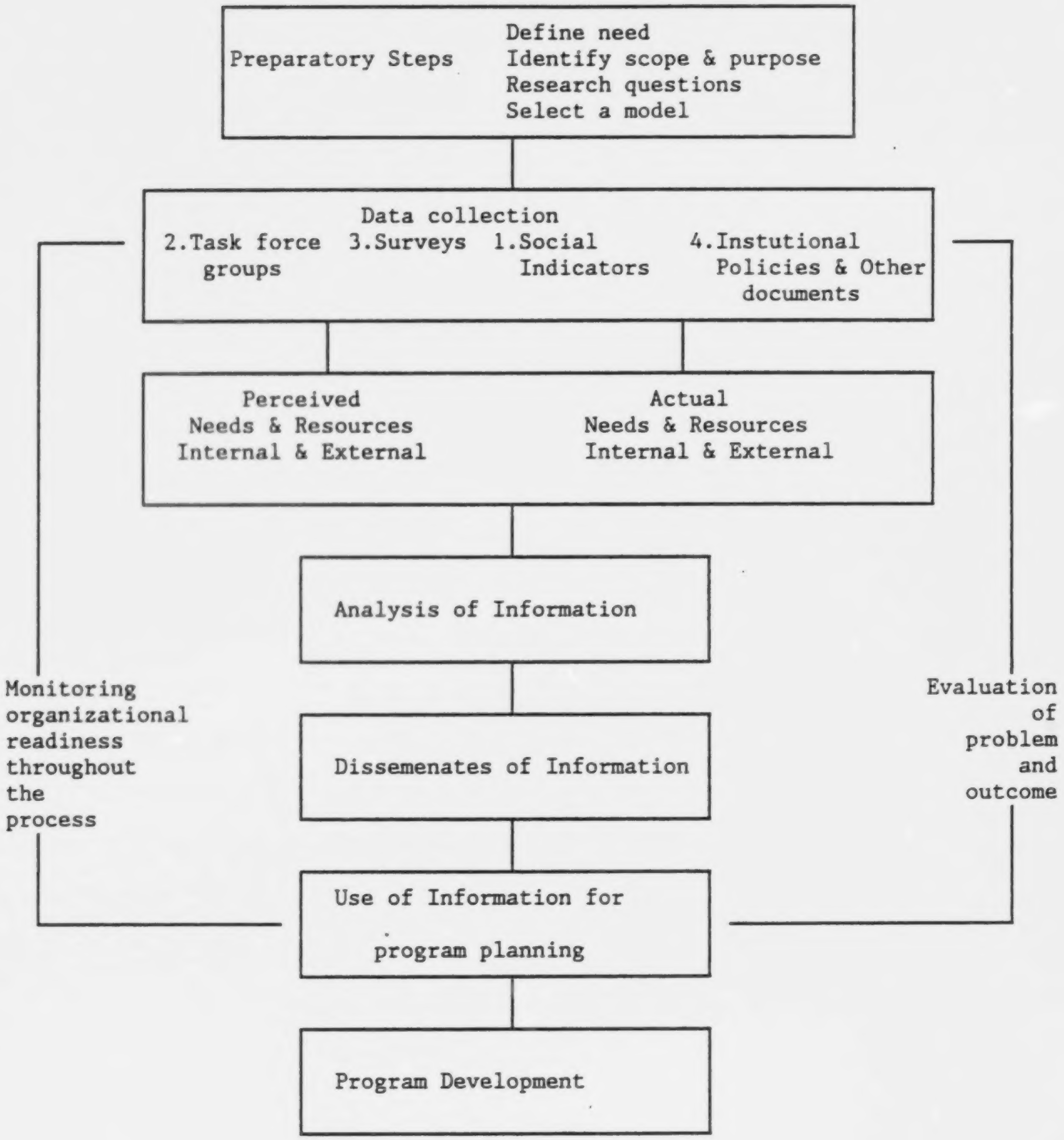
Shown in Figure 1 is a revised model.

Insert Figure 1 here

Preparatory steps, dissemination of information, and use of information were brought forward within the model. Monitoring the organizational readiness was also identified as an essential part of the model. The author believes that the revised model is much more orderly and inclusive of the essential steps that lead to a more useful needs assessment model.

Figure 1

The Revised Model for Needy Assessment


Preparatory Steps
Define need
Identify scope & purpose
Research questions
Select a model
Data collection
2.Task force groups
3.Surveys
1.Social Indicators
4.Instutional Policies & Other documents
Perceived
Needs & Resources
Internal & External
Actual
Needs & Resources
Internal & External
Analysis of Information
Dissemenates of Information
Use of Information for program planning
Program Development
Monitoring organizational readiness throughout the process
Evaluation of problem and outcome

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PREFERRED LEARNING STYLES OF UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN EXTENDED DEGREE STUDENTS AND THEIR IMPACT ON STUDENTS' COMPLETION OF EXTERNAL BACCALAUREATE DEGREE PROGRAMS

Chère Campbell Coggins
Assistant Professor
Department of Continuing and Vocational Education
University of Wisconsin-Madison
1300 Linden Drive
Madison, WI., 53706

Abstract

An examination of the relationship between learning styles and selected demographic variables on students' persistence and non-persistence in external baccalaureate degree programs reveals statistically significant associations among the following variables: intention to earn a degree; level of education at time of enrollment; years since last credit course; and learning style scores as measured by the Canfield Learning Style Inventory. Specific learning style subscales which accounted for the difference in persistence included: student's expectancy or prediction of doing well and content preferences for working with things in contrast to people. The discriminant analysis model generated allowed for 70% of persisters and non-persisters being correctly classified. These findings reinforce the need for preadmissons counseling which focuses on careful degree selection ensuring a close match between the interests and intentions of the student and the degree program. In addition, orientation programs emphsizing survival skills and learning how to learn all toward enhancing a student's self confidence seem indicated. Given the growth in distance learning credit educational programs further research with a sound theoretical base seems essential if we are to successfully serve adult learners at a distance.

PREFERRED LEARNING STYLES OF UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN EXTENDED DEGREE STUDENTS AND THEIR IMPACT ON STUDENTS' COMPLETION OF EXTERNAL BACCALAUREATE DEGREE PROGRAMS

Introduction

The advent of external degree programs promised to enhance adult students' access to higher education and the necessary educational experiences and credentials required by today's society. While accomplishing the goal of access, attrition has been high and degree completion rates less than ideal. Toward the end of understanding those variables associated with persistence and non-persistence, this exploratory study investiaged the relationships between adult students' preferred learning styles and the successful completion of baccalaureate degrees pursued at a distance.

Review of Literature

Sadly enough, as Weisner notes in his 1983 review of the literature on distance learning, one very important question still remains to be answered in the field; that is, what are the factors which account for a student's success or failure in distance learning programs? Thompson (1984) concurs, noting student persistence and student satisfaction with the instructional method (distance learning) have not been studied as extensively as student achievement. This seems regretable given withdrawal rates of 30% - 80% for distance learning (Reddedal, 1972). Recent research conducted in Europe has determined the factors of age, gender, number of years out of school since last enrolled in full time study, and level of formal education are related to persistence, i.e., a student's tendency to complete courses (Woodley and Parlett, 1983, Reddedal, 1983). Additionally, U.S. studies by Billingham and Travaglini (1981) have identified five characteristics predictive of success:grade point average, number of transfer or experiential learning hours, learning options utilized and attitude toward distance learning program. Langenbach and Korhonen (1986) found distance from educational site, number of books read, number of positions held, and selected personal traits, e.g. student's perception of their motivation, academic ability and reading ability to be predictive of persistence. Research focusing specifically on learning styles and persistence in courses and/or completion of degrees in distance education programs has been considerably more limited. As the author of one recent study on learning styles and distance learning concluded "Perhaps some methods of distance education are better suited to some students. Perhaps instructional methods such as correspondence study can be modified so as to be better suited to more students." (Thompson, 1984).

Theoretical Framework

According to McClosky (1968), social and educational participation "appears to be a complex phenomenon that depends upon a great many variables of different weights." All one can do is group the relative independent variables into those influences essentially internal (psychological and cognitive) and those derived from the individuals external environment." Toward this end Boshier (1973) posited a model to explain adult education participation and drop-out. In brief, the model asserts that participation and dropout stem from an interaction of internal pyschological and external environmental variables. More specifically, that "congruence" both within the participant and between the participant and his(her) educational environment determine participation/nonparticipation and dropout/persistence.

Objectives

Utilizing the Boshier (1973) theoretical framework, this study focused on the self/student and self/lecturer congruence in terms of learning style preferences, specifically conditions and modes of learning and selected mediating social variables, such as age, educational qualifications, previous educational participation and psychological variables, such as expectancy. Institutional or sub-environmental mediating variables were studied in an additional study not reported here (Graff and Coggins, 1987). More specifically, the research addressed the question: Are there particular preferred learning style indicators which are predictors of a greater potential to succeed in external baccalaureate degree programs? toward the end of generating tentative recommendations for best practice in distance education.

Methodology

In this post hoc study data were collected from a stratified random sample of students previously associated with the University of Wisconsin System Extended Degree program at the University of Wisconsin-River Falls (Agriculture major), University of Wisconsin-Platteville (Business Administration major), University of Wisconsin-Green Bay (General Studies major) and University of Wisconsin-Superior (Individualized major). A total sample of 210 was drawn with 164 returning the appropriate questionnaires yielding a response rate of 78.1%. One hundred and fifty three questionnaires were useable (83 completers and 70 noncompleters).

A short survey instrument was used to collect the following demographic data: age; gender; marital status; siblings (if any); employment status; previous years in college; previous experience with independent learning; reason for return to school; and number of years since last college credit courses. The independent variable of learning style was measured by the Canfield Learning Style Inventory (CLSI). The CLSI is a 30 item assessment using a 4-point rank order procedure for each item. The instrument generates a total of 21 variables grouped into four major areas: preferred conditions, content, modes and expectancy (performance). Conditions variables include a preference for the following: peer affiliation and instructor affiliation; organization and detailed structure; independence and setting one's own goals; and authority and competition. Content variables include preferences for numerics, language (writing and discussion), objects (working with things versus people) and people (interviewing and counselling). Mode variables are comprised of preferences for listening, reading, iconics (audio-visuals) and direct, hands-on experience. The remaining five variables are additive and generate a single expected performance (class grade) score.

Findings

Approximately 60% of the respondents were female with a majority (80.3%) of individuals between the ages of 25 and 45 at the time of enrollment. Seventy-seven percent lived over 51 miles from campus with the majority (36.0%) living from 101-200 miles away. Ninety-three percent of respondents were employed outside of the home with 75.8% of these individuals employed full time during their studies. Approximately 75% were married, 71.2% with children. Chi squares showed no significant differences between completers and noncompleters on these variables.

Significant differences were found between completers and noncompleters on several other variables. More specifically when asked their intention to complete a degree 96.4% of the completers responded positively, whereas 65.7% of the noncompleters responded similarly (Chi square = 25.66, df=3, p=.0000). Completers and noncompleters also differed significantly in their levels of education at the time of enrollment (Chi square = 27.62, df=6, p=.0001.) with 73.5% of the completers having finished 2-3 years of college prior to enrollment in comparison to 32.9% of the noncompleters. Additionally 22.9% of noncompleters had four years of college in contrast to 6.0% of completers.

Comparison of completers and noncompleters in terms of years since last college credit course yielded significant differences as well (Chi square = 10.15, df=3, p=.0173) with 46.3% completers having taken a college credit course within two years prior to enrollment, 64.6% within 5 years. The noncompleter data yielded 21.7% and 46.3% respectively.

Hotelling's T^2 statistic was used to test if significance differences existed between the learning styles of completers in comparison to non-completers. The results of this multivariate test (S=1, m=9 1/2, N=64 1/2) were significant with F=.028. Further univariate analyses isolated those learning style subscales which accounted for the differences between completers and noncompleters. The results of the univariate F tests (df=1/151) yielded five significant learning style subscales - Inanimate objects (F = .026), People (F = .043), Expectancy of an A (F = .000), Expectancy of a C (F = .000), and Overall expectancy (F = .000).

As noted earlier, significant differences between completers and noncompleters were found in the area of preferred content. More specifically, noncompleters had a higher preference for inanimate/objects related content and a lower preference for people content. However on comparing respondents by program, the Chi square revealed significant differences in cell sizes at .05 level. (Chi square = 16.74, df=3, p=.0008). With the program at River Falls providing a limited number of completers in comparison to the other programs. Post hoc Scheffe's also identified differences among and between programs in terms of learners' content preferences.

Discriminant analysis was conducted to determine the best linear combination for distinguishing among completers and noncompleters Seven variables made up the final model including: Expectancy of a C; People-Content; Numeric-Content; Peers-Conditions; D-Expectancy; Direct Experience-Mode and Detail-Conditions. Canonical discriminant functions yielded an eigenvalue of 0.21594, a canonical correlation of 0.4214, Wilk's Lambda 0.8224, Chi squared = 28.839 df=7, p=.0002. Percent of "grouped" cases correctly classified based on the model generated by the discriminant analysis was 69.93%.

Discussion

This exploratory study examined a wide variety of "personal" variables, including demographic data and learning style preferences. Similar to previous studies of completers and non-completers in external baccalaureate degree programs (Langenbach and Korhonen, 1986), the variables of gender and occupation did not differentiate completers from non-completers, nor did variables related to marital status and the presence or absence of children.

Distance from campus was also not significantly different between completers and noncompleters in contrast to previous studies of Langenbach and Korhonen, (1986) and Meadors (1984). This difference in findings may be accounted for by the fact that the majority of the participants in this study lived 101-200 miles from campus, and the Langenbach and Korhonen research had an over-representation of persisters in the over 500 mile category with a small cell size of 13. In addition, there was no significant difference between completers and non-completers in terms of age on entry into the baccalaureate programs. This finding supports that of Billingham and Travaglini (1981), yet conflicts with those of Long's (1983) summary of persisters data and Langenbach and Korhonen (1986). The narrow age range of participants in this study (80% between ages 25-45) may account for these differences in findings.

Significant differences between completers and noncompleters were noted in terms of educational level prior to enrollment, intention to earn a degree and length of time since last college credit course. Noncompleters were disproportionally represented at the extreme ends of the continuum between high school education and four years of college. Given the educational programs under investigation are upper division programs, faculty may be making assumptions regarding past experiences of students in college, and therefore those with limited or no experience in college may be at a disadvantage. Also 65.7% of non-completers indicated no intention of earning a degree. In a post hoc study such as this one must question whether or not rationalization of non-completion played a part in this response particularly in light of the number of non-completers who had previously earned a baccalaureate degree and a larger number who recognized the extreme length of time required to complete the degree. The significant difference between completers and non-completers in terms of length of time since last college credit course may relate to the fact that recent experience makes one better prepared for additional college work or perhaps may serve as an indication of a lifelong learner - one for whom pursuing a baccalaureate degree at a distance simply replaces ongoing learning activities rather than adding learning activities where none had existed previously.

The lack of significant differences in terms of conditions for learning and preferred learning modality, as defined by Canfield are supportive of those findings of Langenbach and Korhonen (1986). Further analysis, including comparison of these data to Canfield's population norms and other CLSI data from returning adult students, are needed to determine if self-selection into a distance learning program has resulted in an homogeneous grouping of learning style preferences. Whether learning style differences can be discerned in a homogeneous grouping utilizing the CLSI remains open to question as well.

Further research within specific baccalaureate degree programs appears necessary to more fully determine the significance of content preferences on persistence as these findings are questionable given the uneven representation of certain degree programs in the sample.

As in the Langenbach and Korhonen (1986) study, self-perception of academic ability of completers was significantly different than that of non-completers. In this study completers had a significantly higher expectancy of an A, non-completers a higher expectancy of a C. On what basis are students determining their future performance? On past grades in high school or college? Billingham and Travaglini (1981) determined entering grade point average to be a significant variable for distinquishing completers from non-completers. Or perhaps it relates more to dispositional variables, i.e. attitudes and perceptions about self as learner? Research by Graff and Coggins (1987) suggests this indeed may be the case.

Implications for Practice

Based on the findings of this research, it appears that several considerations need special attention in the preadmissions phase of external baccalaureate degree matriculation. Preadmissions counseling should focus on careful degree selection ensuring a close match between the interests and intentions of the perspective student and those of the degree program, particularly in terms of degree content. Similarly, in upper division external degree programs, special provisions need to be established for high risk students, those without at least two years of successful college experience.

On admission, orientation programs seem indicated. These programs should emphasize survival skills and learning how to learn at a distance, all toward the end of enhancing the prospective student's confidence in him/herself as a student. Careful initial course selection also seems indicated to ensure the student's first course experience is one where the student has intense interest and strengths in order to ensure a successful learning experience.

Implications for Research

While persistence has been the subject of a growing body of research, limited research has focused on the distance learner. Given the increasing number of external degree programs, this appears to be a logical arena for additional studies. The findings of this particular study seem to indicate the need for additional research in the areas of motivation, expectancy, and locus of control. What is the nature of these variables? What roles do they play in the successful completion of external degree programs? Multivariate studies with a sound theoretical framework can add much to our body of understanding of persistence and the external degree seeker.

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Matriarchal Consciousness and the Transformative Adult Learning Group

John M. Dirkx
University of Wisconsin-Madison

Small group discussion has a long and honored tradition in adult education (Brookfield, 1985), and continues to be a popular instructional approach in a variety of adult education settings, perhaps because of its ability to provide adults with the opportunity to explore the meaning of their lives (Houle, 1972). Some have even argued that it represents the adult education activity par excellence (Paterson, 1970). Group participation is capable of constellating and bringing into focus a variety of different aspects of one's experience (Whitmont, 1964) and of precipitating personal change (Oatley, 1980). By meeting and interacting with others over time, participants have the potential to reflect on, examine, and re-interpret their life experiences, and to create new "meaning systems" (Brookfield, 1986), to bring about ego development (Abercrombie, 1983), and to facilitate personal transformation (Boyd, 1987b).

The realization of the transformative potential of the interactive, instructional group, however, is intimately intertwined with the nature of the group environment and member interactions. The kinds of personal transformation that many adult educators envision as possible within the adult learning group requires an environment of open, direct, and honest interactions between members. Such an environment involves a sense of the group as safe, accepting, caring, and supportive of and responsive to individual needs. This environment is also characterized by a sense of cohesiveness and closeness among the members that provides security for personal exploration, but does not negate the individuality of the members or result in unquestioning conformism to group norms. For purposes of discussion, an instructional group in which these attributes have been established is referred to here as a "transformative group."

Relatively little is known, however, about how an adult learning group, whose members begin their experiences together as relative strangers, develops into a powerful vessel of personal change and transformation. The dynamic quality of this process is graphically portrayed in the image of the small group progressing from a jungle life fraught with warring tribes, to a settlement within a safe and secure stockade (Williams, 1948). Brookfield (1985) cautions that life in a small group is often the scene of an "emotional battleground" where psychodynamic battles are waged. The peaceful, tranquil, almost serene characteristics used earlier to describe the nature of the transformative group masks the very real and difficult emotional struggles involved in achieving this environment.

Thus, the transformative environment of an adult learning group results from the members encountering and dealing with difficult and sometimes painful emotional struggles within the course of the group's development. A central issue for group facilitators who are concerned with the transformative potential of the adult learning group is to understand how a group progresses from a "jungle life of warring tribes" to the safe and secure "stockade, what factors influence this progression, and why, in some groups, this transformation fails to occur, why - to continue the metaphor - some groups are consumed by the jungle.

Theoretical Framework

In this study, development of the transformative environment within an adult learning group was examined from the perspective of depth psychology (Only a brief overview of this perspective is provided here. A more detailed description of the frameworks and coding procedures used in this study is available from the author). The adult learning group was viewed from the group-as-a-whole perspective (Boyd, 1983, 1984; Kibel & Stein, 1981). The establishment of attributes within the group characteristic of a transformative potential was conceptualized within the theory of the archetypal development of consciousness (Neumann, 1954). According to this theory, consciousness development within the social system is thought to occur in identifiable phases, with each phase reflecting an increased sense of differentiation, a decline in magical and mythical modes of thought, and an increased reliance on more rational approaches to setting and solving problems (Whitmont, 1982). Each of these phases is characterized by a distinct archetypal theme, which are symbolized by involuntary fantasy images, emotions, attitudes, and actions.

Analysis focused on the matriarchal phase of consciousness because of its theoretical importance in the transformative potential of the group (Whitmont, 1964). When the social system is in its infancy, the archetype of the Mother serves a positive function in nurturing a group so that it may learn to stand on its own feet. At some point, however, the sense of protection and nurturance provided by the symbolic representation of the social system as Mother begins to be perceived as constraining, smothering and potentially destructive of individuality. The transformative potential of the group environment begins to emerge when group members perceive the social system as predominantly symbolic of a benevolent matriarch. How the social system approaches and resolves this conflict was the central focus of this study.

Previous research suggests that this resolution process involves two key phenomena: a group-wide pattern of aggressive and sometimes hostile behavior and attitudes, conceptualized in this study within basic assumption theory (Bion, 1961), and the behavior and emotion of particular group members, conceptualized here as focal person activity. Therefore, this study tested the conjecture that, in an interactional adult learning group, successful resolution of the matriarchal phase of consciousness and the establishment of attributes characteristics of a transformative environment involve: 1) a period of conflict with and opposition to the symbolic representation of the social system as a malevolent matriarch (the encounter period); and 2) manifestation during the encounter period of a group-wide aggression, conceptualized as a basic assumption of Fight, and focal person activity.

Methods

In this study, the group-as-a-whole was regarded as the unit of analysis and a single-case approach was used as the research design.

The instructional group studied consisted of eight women and two men,all returning adult students enrolled in a graduate level course on the dynamics of instructional groups. During the experiential phase of the course, the group meet weekly for 10 sessions. Each session was 150 minutes in length. These sessions had no explicit curriculum or agenda assigned by the professor of the course. Rather, the students were told that the purpose of these sessions was to help them develop an awareness and better understanding of the dynamics of small groups, and their behavior within these groups. The designated leader utilized a nondirective approach to the group and offered occasional interpretations of the dynamics of the social system in the form of metaphors or analogies.

Each of the 10 experiential sessions was videotape and audiotape recorded. Procedures and coding manuals were developed for coding the videotapes for archetypal themes, basic assumption activity, and focal person activity. Each of the procedures used a team approach to coding, with the judges first making independent judgements for each coding unit. The results of the independent codings were compared and any disagreements in the codings were discussed until the judges agreed on a single coding. Both the independent codings and the codings following discussion were recorded. All three coding procedures were investigated for validity. These analyses supported the validity of the three coding procedures. Inter-judge reliability was measured for each of the three procedures using the weighted proportion of agreement procedure (Cohen, 1968). Based on the independent, pre-conference codings of the judges, the reliability coefficients over all sessions coded were .72 for archetypal themes, .63 for basic assumptions, and .93 for focal person activity. These values are consistent with previous studies using high inference, observational procedures. All 10 sessions were coded for archetypal themes and basic assumption activity. The last three sessions were coded for focal person activity.

Findings

The data were analyzed in terms of the frequencies with which codings were recorded in each of the coding categories, expressed as a percent of total interaction time coded. The results show that the encounter theme (struggle between the symbols of the social system as a good and bad matriarch) was manifest in the last three sessions of the group, comprising approximately 10% of all group interaction time. The findings also indicated that an image of the social system as the Good Mother did eventually predominate over that of the Bad Mother in the group, expressed as the theme of resolution of the Great Mother. The resolution theme was expressed in sessions nine and 10 and accounted for approximately 10% of all group interaction time. The basic assumption of Fight, however, was not observed during the encounter period. In fact, less than 15 minutes of Fight was coded over all 10 sessions. The results supported the role of focal person activity in the encounter period. Focal person activity was manifest for approximately 11% of the total time in which the encounter theme was observed. The focal persons identified during this period were coded as reflecting ambivalence towards the Great Mother.

A series of post hoc analyses were performed to investigate questions related to the hypotheses. Analysis of basic assumption activity during the encounter period indicated a predominance of Flight (33% of the encounter period), followed by Dependency and Pairing (22% each). Over the life cycle of the group, the social system utilized the basic assumption of dependency most frequently (37%), followed by Flight (23%) and mixed basic assumption activities (23%). Analysis of the coding frequencies for the different archetypal themes indicated a predominance of matriarchal concerns in the group (69% of total group interaction). Only one patriarchal theme was observed, which constituted 13% of total interaction time. In general, the matriarchal themes appeared in the relative order predicted by Neumann's (1954) theory.

Discussion and Implications

The evidence presented here suggests that the social system develops through a process of increasing differentiation and separation from the group as a Mother symbol. This process is facilitated by encouraging member-member interactions and decreasing the amount of teacher talk and teacher-student interactions. Potential dangers of fusion and deindividuation (perceptions of the social system as a malevolent matriarch) may be alleviated and differentiation furthered by periodically asking group members to reflect on the meaning of their interactions, particularly when emotions and feelings in the group are intense. This process of differentiation also takes time, as illustrated by the finding that the encounter period occurred in the group studied in the last three sessions. Thus, facilitators must allow their groups time to work through the issues surrounding matriarchal consciousness.

The findings suggest that the encounter period is a key phase in matriarchal consciousness and in the emergence of a transformative environment. Members must be given the opportunity to consciously and directly challenge their fears of a containing, constraining, and smothering Mother. Individuals must be able to break free of the group's containment and to become their own person within the group. Facilitators can help with the process of the encounter period by interpreting and making explicit for the group interactions which symbolize this primordial struggle, encouraging the group to reflect on its own interactions, and encouraging risk-taking behaviors.

Focal person activity is also an important aspect of the encounter period. Group facilitators should seek to identify what members are playing the role of focal persons in the group. Because focal person activity can potentially appear to be a negative or undesirable development, facilitators need to be aware of the role that such individuals play in group development. The facilitator needs to be careful not to unintentionally truncate the influence of the focal person by "taking charge" in moments of conflict or uncertainty in the group.

Another finding of potential importance to the facilitation of adult learning groups is the predominance of matriarchal themes. This finding suggests that the feminine principle is far more intrinsic to group interaction than has been previously recognized. Because of cultural biases, however, which emphasize patriarchal consciousness and masculine forms of reality adaptation, adult learning groups may need assistance in fostering the feminine principle and matriarchal consciousness. Facilitators should emphasize and seek to foster the characteristics of matriarchal consciousness, such as concreteness, relatedness, acceptance, support and caring.

Finally, the findings suggest that the process of differentiation and separation within the matriarchal phase of consciousness involves primarily the basic assumptions of Dependency and Flight. Facilitators should avoid trying to bring about alternative basic assumption activity, such as Fight or Counterdependency. Members should be guided in redirecting the basic assumptions of Dependency and Flight towards the development of the social system. This may result in increasing their awareness of the social system as a matriarchal symbol, which may, in turn, further the process of differentiation and separation. Dependency and Flight should be viewed as unconsciously shared ideas in the group that potentially contribute to the successful resolution of the matriarchal phase of consciousness.

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Reading Activities Among Older Adults

Dr. James C. Fisher, Assistant Professor
Department of Administrative Leadership
University of Wisconsin - Milwaukee
P. O. Box 413
Milwaukee, WI 53201

Abstract

Sixty-nine older adults were interviewed to probe their reading, writing, computational, and other educational and leisure time activities. Findings indicate (a) that programs are needed to encourage and support the use of literacy skills by older adults; (b) that a distinction appears to exist between reading activity carried out for its own sake and reading activity carried out in order to function in a particular environment; and (c) that reading may be influenced as much by environment and need as by ability.

Reading Activities Among Older Adults

Despite steady increases in educational attainment among older adults, significant numbers of older persons have limited literacy skills; nevertheless comparatively few have enrolled in basic education classes (Kasworm, 1981). Although researchers disagree as to whether literacy is necessary for older adults to function properly, the impact of illiteracy on older adults has been unaddressed in the research literature.

The purpose of this study is to describe the reading, mathematics, and writing activities in which a sample of older adults engaged, to develop a profile of the reading activities of older adult readers, and to discuss the implications of these findings for practice.

Methodology

In order to insure that the sample included a cross section of the older adult population, interviews were conducted with 69 persons in private homes, senior centers, an older adult learning center, and a nursing home. The hour-long interview schedule probed reading, writing, computational, and other educational and leisure time activities; a 27-item Reading Inventory ascertained the frequency with which certain reading activities had been performed. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistical methods and contingency analysis.

Findings

Of the subjects interviewed, 70% were female, and 55% were age 75 and above; the mean age was 78. Most (78%) had been employed in non-professional occupations prior to retirement. The largest number (43%) lived in a nursing home, 34% lived in their own homes, and 23% lived in apartments. When describing their health, 24.6% said it was "not so good," 40.6% said "somewhat good," and 34.8% said "very good." None described his/her health as "poor." All respondents described themselves as engaging in at least one kind of Leisure Time Activity, 45% engaged in some activity on a daily basis, and 23% on a weekly basis. Approximately 45% indicated that they had acquired one or two new leisure time activities since retirement. Although 33% said their overall activity had decreased since retirement, 23% said it had increased, and 20% said it had not changed. An additional 10% said their activity level had increased in some respects and decreased in others.

The mean Level of Educational Attainment of both subjects and their spouses was in the 12th grade; however, spouses had a one-third year higher level. Since most of the subjects were female, we can infer that their male spouses were slightly better educated. When asked to describe their Participation in Educational Activities, 22% described participation in one educational activity, 7% in two, and 10% in three activities. Approximately 33% were able to identify at least one item that they would like to learn more about or how to do better.

In describing the Amount of Reading they did, 5.8% said "none," 33.3% said "not very much," 23.2% said "some," and 37.9% said "very much." In later data analysis, these categories were collapsed into low readers (39.1%) and high readers (60.8%). Approximately 40.6% said they had read something the day of the interview, 24.6% within the week, and 7.2% less often. When probing the amount of time spent each day reading, 36.2% indicated two or more hours, 27.5% one to two hours, and 18.8% less than one hour per week. Further, 36.2% said they usually understood what they read "very well," 44.9% said "somewhat well," and 5.8% said "not very well." Approximately 43.5% said that their reading ability had improved over the years, 24.6% said that it had declined, and 17.4% said it had remained the same.

The most popular items identified in response to an open-ended question, "What do you read the most?" were newspaper, magazine, and novels. In response to the 27-item Inventory of Reading Needs and Interests, the calendar, newspaper, and street or traffic signs were read most frequently on a daily basis among all subjects; a letter received in the mail, a bulletin board notice, and the price, weight or size of a product in a store were read most frequently on a weekly basis. Items from the inventory least frequently read were income tax information, an insurance policy, or a stock or investment report.

When asked to describe the Amount of Arithmetic used, 13% said "none," 63.8% said "not very much," 15.9% said "some," and 7.2% said "very much." Nearly 35% said that they balanced their own checkbooks and counted change when shopping; 10.1% said they had used arithmetic the day of the interview, 17.4% within the week, and 24.6% less often.

In describing their Amount of Writing, 21.7% said "none," 39.1% said "not very much," 10.1% said "some," and 21.7% said "very much." Most frequent responses to, "What do you write the most?" were letters, articles for publication (including articles for the nursing home newsletter), checks, and a personal journal. Only 5.8% of the respondents said they wrote something the day of the interview, 31.9% within the week, and 24.6% less often. In probing the amount of time spent each day writing, 4.3% said two or more hours, 8.7% said one to two hours, and 43.5% said less often.

The variable Amount of Reading was related at a statistically significant level with each of the 27 items of the Inventory of Reading Needs and Interests except those read by the largest number of persons, Menu, Notice on Bulletin Board, Calendar, and Bible. The Inventory items most strongly associated with Amount of Reading were Magazine [V ($\underline{N}$ = 68) = .59649], Checkbook or Bank Statement [V ($\underline{N}$ = 67) = .51411], and Street or Traffic Signs (V ($\underline{N}$ = 67) = .51071]. See Table 1. Among the 23 items on the Reading Inventory related at a statistically significant level to the variable Amount of Reading, the distinction between high readers and low readers is apparent. However, in the 4 variables on the Reading Inventory read by the largest number of respondents, further analysis revealed that those classed as nonreaders read, with varying frequencies, the menu, notices on the bulletin board, the calendar, and the Bible.

Table 1
Reading Inventory Summary

Reading Activity	Frequency				N	Strength of Association Tau c
	Daily	Weekly	Less Often	Not at all		
Menu						
High readers	12	18	10	2	67	.1211
Low readers	10	2	7	6		
Insurance policy						
High readers	0	0	17	25	67	.2512*
Low readers	0	1	2	22		
Thermometer						
High readers	18	3	6	13	65	.3910**
Low readers	4	1	2	18		
Directions on a container of medicine						
High readers	7	9	20	13	66	.3792**
Low readers	0	3	5	17		
Label on a container of food						
High readers	8	12	9	13	67	.2824*
Low readers	2	4	5	14		
Return address on an envelope						
High readers	16	8	10	7	66	.3728**
Low readers	2	3	13	7		
Map						
High readers	2	7	21	12	67	.3493**
Low readers	0	1	9	15		
Airline, bus, or train schedule						
High readers	2	1	21	18	67	.39563***
Low readers	0	0	4	21		
Directions on a form to fill out						
High readers	2	4	22	14	67	.3992***
Low readers	0	0	7	18		
Price, weight and size information while shopping						
High readers	4	18	6	14	67	.4294***
Low readers	1	3	1	20		
Street or traffic signs						
High readers	28	3	2	8	67	.4366***
Low readers	8	0	0	18		
Newspaper						
High readers	31	7	2	2	67	.4250***
Low readers	9	4	3	9		
Bills or statements received in the mail						
High readers	12	13	5	12	67	.3546**
Low readers	5	1	1	18		
Income tax information						
High readers	0	1	18	23	67	.3867***
Low readers	0	0	1	24		

Instruction manual for tool or appliance						
High readers	1	2	22	17	67	.3270**
Low readers	0	1	5	19		
Check received in the mail						
High readers	6	13	12	11	67	.4615***
Low readers	1	3	2	19		
Guarantee or warranty						
High readers	1	3	22	15	64	.3066**
Low readers	0	1	6	16		
Notice on a bulletin board						
High readers	13	17	9	3	68	-.0415
Low readers	11	7	4	4		
Letter received in the mail						
High readers	6	24	11	1	67	.4000***
Low readers	3	3	17	2		
Advertising received in the mail						
High readers	11	12	7	12	67	.3902**
Low readers	2	1	8	14		
Calendar						
High readers	31	7	2	2	67	-.0071
Low readers	19	3	0	3		
Dictionary						
High readers	8	13	10	11	67	.3822**
Low readers	1	4	5	15		
Checkbook or bank statement						
High readers	6	13	14	9	67	.4954***
Low readers	0	4	3	18		
Magazine						
High readers	1	18	14	1	68	.6159***
Low readers	0	2	15	6		
Stock or investment report						
High readers	6	5	7	24	68	.3140**
Low readers	0	1	2	23		
Legal document such as will or contract						
High readers	0	1	19	21	67	.3029**
Low readers	0	1	3	22		
Bible or religious writings						
High readers	11	12	10	9	67	.1648
Low readers	6	3	7	9		

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* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

Application to Practice

The findings of this research have these important implications for such practitioners as caregivers, activity leaders, and educators of older adults:

1. Develop literacy education materials and activities for older adults based upon items which they are likely to need or be interested to read.

Differences between responses to the Reading Inventory and responses to the open-ended question, "What do you read the most?" suggests a perception which distinguishes reading carried out for its own sake from one in which the goal of reading lies outside the reading activity. This distinction is not unlike that of Havighurst who described the two basic purposes of education as "instrumental" and "expressive" (1964, pp. 17-18). In the "expressive" perception, reading is done intentially for its own sake; it is valued for the activity itself or for the larger significance of the information gained, as in the case of reading a newspaper, magazine, or book. In the "instrumental" perception, reading bulletin board notices, calendars, and street signs may be perceived as of no particular value in themselves, but incidental to, although necessary for, proper functioning in a particular environment. High readers used reading for both instrumental and expressive purposes; low readers were more likely to read mainly for instrumental purposes. Literacy education for older adults should clearly encompass both needs.

2. Develop programs which encourage and support the use of literacy skills. The activities of older adults are strongly influenced by programs developed for them by professionals. Nevertheless, respondents described no organized institutional support for reading activities. Subjects read on their own initiative as part of self-directed learning or recreational activities or in response to their own need for information. While residents of the nursing home and participants in senior centers were strongly encouraged by staff members to engage in a number of activities, many of which were new to the older adults, there was no evidence in subjects' responses to suggest that any of these activities encouraged reading at all. Both older adults and practitioners who work with them may share the assumption that older adults have no need to read, an assumption which becomes a self-fulfilling reality. Practitioners who work with older adults are therefore encouraged to provide literacy-related activities at a range of levels and in varying contexts in order to support higher literacy usage and thereby influence older adults to engage in a lifestyle in which they are less dependent on others to meet their needs.

When developing such activities, factors other than ability to read must be taken into consideration. The data indicate that a clear dividing line based solely on ability may not exist between readers and nonreaders. Instead, there appears to be a continuum embracing both those who read extensively and those whose literacy activities are very limited. Where older persons fall on that continuum may depend on the encouragement and support to read which they receive from others, their view of their environment, their understanding of their own activity, their need to read in order to function, their physical ability, as well as on their ability and skill as readers.

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A Decade of Research Contributions to the Adult Basic Education Literature

Dr. James C. Fisher, Assistant Professor
Dr. Larry G. Martin, Associate Professor
Department of Administrative Leadership
University of Wisconsin - Milwaukee
P. O. Box 413
Milwaukee, WI 53201

Abstract

Forty-three articles reporting empirical research in adult literacy education published in _Adult Education Quarterly_, _Adult Literacy and Basic Education_, and _Lifelong Learning: An OImnibus of Practice and Research_ from October 1976 to October 1986 were analyzed according to research design and methodology, size and type of subject population, and content variables investigated. The significance of both the methodology and the content of these studies for the adult literacy education practitioner is discussed.

A Decade of Research Contributions
to the Adult Basic Education Literature

The largest literacy effort in the United States is the government's program which originated with the passage of the Adult Education Act of 1966 and which has continued with annual funding. This program is directly or indirectly responsible for the development of several types of literacy programs, such as Adult Basic Education (ABE), Adult Secondary Education (ASE), and Adult Performance Level (APL). These and similar programs were established to serve the learning and educational needs of approximately 72 million illiterate and functionally illiterate adults. During the twenty years since 1966, the ability of these nationwide programs to attract, enroll, and retain adults has stabilized at between four and five percent of the target population, less than one-half of one per cent of whom complete the programs annually.

The purpose of this research was to determine the nature of the contribution to the knowledge of successful practice in adult literacy education made by the empirical research published in three adult education journals, *Adult Education Quarterly*, *Adult Literacy and Basic Education*, and *Lifelong Learning: An Omnibus of Practice and Research*, during the decade between October 1976 and October 1986. In order to achieve this purpose, several research questions were addressed specifically: (a) What empirical research documents focusing on adult literacy were published during the period of the study? (b) To what extent have the research efforts focusing on adult literacy employed research designs which sought either to test theory or to generate theory? (c) What aspects of the adult literacy effort have received the greatest amount of attention from researchers, and what aspects have received the least amount of attention?

Theoretical Framework

Three approaches to the use of research as a basis for theory and practice are often cited. Campbell and Stanley (1963) argue that the research experiment is (a) the only means for settling disputes regarding educational practice; (b) the only way of verifying educational improvements; and (c) the only way of establishing a cumulative tradition in which improvements can be introduced without the danger of a faddish discard of wisdom in favor of inferior novelties. According to this experimental approach which seeks to provide an objective basis for decision making, the methodology is essentially that of hypothesis or theory testing in which the researcher manipulates variables in order to assure the integrity of the findings.

Guba and Lincoln (1981), on the other hand, advocate a naturalistic approach in which the researcher is immersed in, experiences, and interacts with the subjects being investigated. Rather than manipulating the phenomena, the researcher seeks to discover their significance to the situation through the use of inquiry.

A third approach, survey research, studies populations by selecting and studying samples to discover "the relative incidence, distribution, and interrelations of sociological and psychological variables" in order to make an accurate assessment of whole populations of people (Kerlinger, 1973, 410). The variables examined in survey research include demographic facts as well as attitudes and opinions, often with an aim to identify relationships between the variables under scrutiny.

The content of the research was analyzed using Pratt's (1981) modification of the Dunkin and Biddle (1974) paradigm of educational program components. This paradigm presents four comprehensive categories by which to understand each study: (a) Antecedent Variables: Personal characteristics of students; Personal characteristics of teachers; Training, education of teachers; Outside support for students. (b) Context Variables: Program content and focus; Institutional parameters; Program setting. (c) Process Variables: Teacher skill and behavior; Academic learning time; Academic integration of students; Social integration of students; Student behavior. (d) Product Variables: Student attendance, retention, completion; Increase in employment or economic status; Gains in learning outcomes; Increase in student self-image and social skills.

Review of the Literature

Both computer and manual searches were conducted to identify adult literacy research published in the three aforementioned adult education journals between October, 1976, and October, 1986. The search yielded over one hundred relevant documents. The number of documents was culled to 43 by selecting for further analysis only those which met the following criteria: (a) Published in one of the three journals specified; (b) Published during the time frame specified; (c) Utilized an empirical research design; and (d) Focused on one or more of the content categories described above.

Presentation of Data

Of all of the studies reviewed, 21% used a naturalistic design and 7% used an experimental design. The largest number, nearly one third (30%) of the articles, used some variation of an ex post facto design. Ten studies, nearly one fourth, used a survey design. These data are contained in Table 1.

Table 1

Types of Research Design by Frequency of Studies

Type of Design	N	Percent
Naturalistic	9	20.93
Experimental	3	6.98
Pre-Experimental	8	18.60
Ex Post Facto	13	30.23
Survey	10	23.26
Total	43	100.00

Table 2

Number of Subjects by Frequency of Studies

No. of Subjects	N	Percent
0 - 24	11	25.6
25 - 49	10	23.3
50 - 99	8	18.6
100 and above	14	32.6
Total	43	100.0

Over 72% of the studies reviewed were either descriptive survey analyses of a single population, a variation of a pre-experimental design, or an ex post facto design. No quasi-experimental designs were identified.

According to Table 2, nearly half (49%) of the studies had sample sizes of fewer than 50 subjects; approximately 19 percent analyzed samples of 50 to 99 subjects, and nearly 33 percent had sample sizes of over 100 subjects.

In Table 3, the largest group of subjects were students in various programs (58.14%), followed by teachers, tutors, volunteers and administrators (25.58%). Others who served as subjects for the research included members of the target population not in school (16.28%). Six of the studies (14%) incorporated more than one population group in the research.

The analysis of the content revealed that 79% of the studies investigated one or more Product Variables, and 74% investigated one or more Antecedent Variables. See Table 4. Over 44% considered a Context Variable and nearly 28% studied a Process Variable. The variables most frequently included in the research designs were Personal characteristics of students (51%); Student attendance, retention, completion (28%); Program content, focus (23%); and Gains in learning outcomes (23%). Variables least frequently included were Academic integration of students, Academic learning time, and Student behavior.

Table 3

Types of Subjects by Frequency of Studies

Type of Subjects	N	Percent
Students	25	58.14
Teachers and Administrators	11	25.58
Non-school	7	16.28
Total	43	100.00

Table 4

Categories of Variables Studied by Frequency of Studies

Variable	N	Percent of Studies
Antecedent Variables:		
Personal Characteristics of Students	22	51.2
Personal Characteristics of Teachers	4	9.3
Training, Education of Teachers	3	7.0
Outside Support for Students	3 (32)	7.0 (74.42)
Context Variables:		
Program content, focus	10	23.3
Institutional parameters	3	7.0
Program setting	6 (19)	14.0 (44.3)
Process Variables:		
Teacher skill or behavior	8	18.6
Academic learning time	1	2.3
Academic integration of students	0	0.0
Social integration of students	2	4.7
Student behavior	1 (12)	2.3 (27.9)
Product Variables:		
Student attendance, retention, completion	12	27.9
Increase in employment or economic status	7	16.3
Gains in learning outcomes	10	23.3
Student self-image and social skills	5 (34)	11.6 (79.07)
Total number of categories studied	97	
Total number of studies	43	

Application to Practice

Although it was beyond the scope of this investigation to assess the particular contribution of each of the studies to the practice of adult literacy education, such factors as the research method and design employed and the content variables considered have significant implications for the degree to which practitioners are able to use the findings of such studies to inform and improve their practice.

Because of their research designs, many of the studies have limited utility for theory testing. According to Campbell and Stanley (1963), research designs without at least one formal comparison are weak scientifically because the presumed effect might have occurred as it did without the treatment and presumed cause. In this study, nearly 42% of the adult literacy education research studies published during the past decade consisted of pre-experimental and survey designs and possess such weaknesses. The contribution of these studies in measuring the outcome of a particular treatment or identifying the consequences of a particular strategy is thereby sorely compromised. Over 37% of the research designs fit either experimental or ex post facto designs, paradigms appropriate to testing theory.

Further, many of the sample sizes of the subjects studied are sufficiently small to present a high risk of accepting false hypotheses. According to Blalock (1972), p. 185), whenever N 100, the researcher can relax the normality assumptions of a sample and make use of the central-limit theorem. If N 50 *and* there is empirical evidence that the departure from normality is not serious, parametric tests may be employed. If N 30, one should be on guard against using such tests. Nonparametric tests involve weaker assumptions and increase the risks of failing to reject a false hypothesis. In this study, approximately one fourth of the studies involved samples where N 25, presenting a greater risk in accepting a false hypothesis. For the practitioner, studies involving small samples present serious constraints regarding the degree to which the research findings may be generalized to other situations.

Conversely, the contribution of some of the studies was limited to theory generation. Studies using a naturalistic design, nearly 21% of the sample, aid in describing and understanding a particular event or situation, resulting in the potential emergence of theory.

Researchers have focused on student characteristics and student retention to the exclusion of many aspects of the educational program related to the teaching-learning process and context, especially the roles of the teacher and the institution. One can observe in the data a preoccupation to discover a relationship between Student Characteristics and such product variables as Student attrition, Student employment, or Student self-image, without much consideration of the intervening variables between input and outcome which may influence the practice of adult literacy education more directly.

In many respects, the conduct of research of adult literacy education reflects both the adult education research preoccupation with participation and difficulty with many of the same problems which researchers seek to illumine: student attrition, lack of motivation, etc. However, only as research design, sample size, and process and context variables receive more careful consideration will the research literature in adult basic education have the capability to improve practice in the nation's many adult literacy education programs.

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Abstract

Examining Leadership Styles:
A Dilemma for Cross-cultural Adult Educators

by: Dr. Kenneth R. Harder
Coordinator of Continuing Education
Missionary Internship
P.O. Box 457
Farmington, MI 48024

As adult educators increasingly accept assignments overseas, they are often faced with a new conflict between project goals and long-term community development resulting in a better life, enhanced skills, and more effective leadership. Awareness of cross-cultural leadership preferences allows the adult educator to develop strategies which facilitates local ownership and reliance while reaching common goals. The research studies of Harder (1984) and Amirsaputre (1979) and work of Casse (1985) provide insights for utilizing leadership and decision-making styles in project planning and implementation.

Examining Leadership Styles: A Dilemma for Cross-cultural Adult Educators

by: Dr. Kenneth R. Harder

More and more adult educators are accepting assignments to work in third world nations. Usually attached to development projects, the adult educator is often torn between narrowly fulfilling the project's goals and objectives or more broadly being concerned about the overall effect of his/her involvement on the local leadership and community. Certainly the best of all projects are those that achieve their stated goals while making significant contributions to the development of local leadership and the community.

However, third world hosts see many cross-cultural adult educators come and go, often with little long term impact. Sometimes the host becomes adept at welcoming the adult educator, shows outward signs of acceptance and change, but in fact does not understand the project's purpose. Since the host knows that many other adult educators will come in the future, each bringing his own message, he decides to utilize the project for the immediate personal needs of his family or community.

Before adult educators can make major changes in this scenario, they need to develop strategies for examining the area of cross-cultural leadership and decision-making. Understanding of the host people's leadership preferences gives adult educators the potential for 1) increasing local ownership of the project, 2) reducing dependency on external resources, and 3) increasing the effectiveness of local leaders. With this understanding, adult educators are more capable of initiating strategies which are truly participatory and anticipatory for themselves and the host people.

Background Issues

A starting point for adult educators' understanding of the host people's preferences in leadership and decision-making is the examination of their own preferences. These preferences are based on cultural values. Without serious examination of these values adult educators are doomed to ethnocentric practices which are ineffective, wrong, or at the best inappropriate. O'Gorman (1978,1979) reminds us that the values of the change agent (adult educator) can develop a people's self-reliance from or reliance on external direction, resources, and initiatives. Kohl (1984) lists thirteen American values and states that all thirteen are judged wrong or undesirable by one or more cultures.

The examining of one's own values and subsequent behavior helps adult educators working in another culture to understand their own actions and emotions. While this knowledge is critical, it does not identify the host culture's preferences and values. In making decisions, an educator must always remember that leadership requires "followership."

> The popular management literature on "leadership" often forgets that leadership can only exist as a complement to "subordinate-ship." Subordinates as a group are accessary to the exercise of power in a hierarchical system: The way the system functions reflects their collective complicity and role relationship to which both parties contribute. (Hofstede, 1980, p. 97).

Hofstede used four dimensions in his study of corporate managers in forty nations. He found that "power distance" (manner by which the authority is able to determine subordinate behavior) was the most significant cross-cultural variable. In countries with higher "power distance" index scores (e.g. France) there was little concern for participative management, but a geat concern for power. U.S.A., Canada, and Australia were clustered with medium levels of "power distance," which advocated subordinate participation initiated by the supervisor. In countries with low "power distance" index values (e.g. Sweden, Norway, Israel) there would be appreciation for models which allowed initiative by subordinates.

In development projects adult educators have major areas which require decisions: identifying the needs and concerns in relation to the content and instruction; developing of the curriculum and instructional plan; and implementing the plan of action in the villages. If the appropriate decision-making approach is followed, the ownership of the program will begin during the initial stage, needs assessment. Through some process of decision-making, priorities will be established, goals delineated, and plans developed. The relevancy and acceptance of the program may depend on how these are developed.

Research in Kenya, East Africa

From 1981-1984 the author designed an instrument which would allow Kenyans to identify their preference of leadership style for a specific societal role. The role in focus for the 173 respondents was the pastor (clergy) of the local church. Three types of respondents (experienced pastors, elected lay leaders, and students preparing for the ministry) in two geographical regions were asked to state their preference for this key role in the community.

Five leadership styles were identified with the help of a Kenyan advisory group. The styles were modeled on Schaupp's (1978) simplified description of Tannenbaum and Schmidts' (1958) "Leader Behavior Continuum." The five styles were described as follows:

LsA: Pastor A - The one who tells or commands (Amurisha/Amua)
LsE: Pastor E - The one who explains or sells his decision (Eleza)
LsT: Pastor T - The one who seeks advice before making his decision (Taka kushauriwa)
LsS: Pastor S - The one who calls a decision making body together to make the decision (Uamuzi wa kikundi)
LsC: Pastor C - The one who does nothing, but waits for nature to take its course (Hafanyi lolote/Huchelewesha)

The respondents ranked the five styles using the designed instrument. Table 1 indicated that all research groups perceived "group-centered" leadership as the most appropriate style for leadership in the local church. The results indicated a mixed preference for the second choice between "Explaining/selling" and "Consulting" leadership styles.

A highly skewed perception of the least appropriate leadership behavior was held by all research groups (Table 2). They considered the "Do-nothing" leadership style the least appropriate. The opposite style, "Telling," was

Table 1

SUMMARY OF FREQUENCIES OF APPROPRIATE LEADERSHIP STYLES BY RESEARCH GROUPS

Research Groups MR: Machakos NRVR: Rift Valley	Statistical Results										Remarks:
	n*	Data Source**	Frequencies of Appropriate Ranking					x^2	df	Significance Level	Null Hypothesis
			LsA	LsE	LsF	LsS	LsC				
All Church Leaders	123	First rank only	5	9	13	96	0	262.81	4	0.000***	Rejected
All Students	50	First rank only	0	5	4	41	0	122.20	4	0.000***	Rejected
MR Elders	60	First & sec. ranks	2	9	20	29	0	50.50	4	0.000***	Rejected
MR Pastors	60	First & sec. ranks	3	9	23	25	0	43.67	4	0.000***	Rejected
MR Students	54	First & sec. ranks	1	9	19	25	0	44.89	4	0.000***	Rejected
NRVR Elders	64	First & sec. ranks	6	19	11	28	0	37.72	4	0.000***	Rejected
NRVR Pastors	62	First & sec. ranks	7	15	15	25	0	28.65	4	0.000***	Rejected
NRVR Students	46	First & sec. ranks	3	12	11	20	0	27.26	4	0.000***	Rejected

* n indicates the number of observed frequencies counted. When only one rank is considered in the analysis, the n is the number of respondents; when the first- and second- ranked items are considered, the n is the number of responses.

** LBQ Appropriate Practice Question: The first rank is the highest rank. First and second ranks are the two highest rankings.

*** Significance Level = .01 or better

Table 2

SUMMARY OF FREQUENCIES OF LEAST APPROPRIATE LEADERSHIP STYLES BY RESEARCH GROUPS

Research Groups MR: Machakos NRVR: Rift Valley	Statistical Results										Remarks:
	n*	Data Source**	Frequencies of Inappropriate Ranking					x^2	df	Significance Level	Null Hypothesis
			LsA	LsE	LsF	LsS	LsC				
All Church Leaders	123	Fifth rank only	6	3	0	0	114	407.12	4	0.000***	Rejected
All Students	50	Fifth rank only	2	0	0	0	48	407.12	4	0.000***	Rejected
MR Elders	60	Fourth & Fifth ranks	23	3	5	0	29	57.00	4	0.000***	Rejected
MR Pastors	60	Fourth & Fifth ranks	23	6	1	2	28	52.83	4	0.000***	Rejected
MR Students	54	Fourth & Fifth ranks	22	2	3	0	27	59.52	4	0.000***	Rejected
NRVR Elders	64	Fourth & Fifth ranks	18	4	8	2	32	47.88	4	0.000***	Rejected
NRVR Pastors	62	Fourth & Fifth ranks	17	4	7	3	31	44.77	4	0.000***	Rejected
NRVR Students	46	Fourth & Fifth ranks	12	2	8	1	23	34.65	4	0.000***	Rejected

* n indicates the number of observed frequencies counted. When only one rank is considered in the analysis, the n is the number of respondents; when the first- and second-ranked items are considered, the n is the number of responses.

** LBQ Appropriate Practice Question: The fifth rank is the lowest rank. The fourth and fifth ranks are the the lowest two rankings.

*** Significance Level = .01 or better

considered the next least appropriate. For these Kenyans, an appropriate leader was not to relinquish initiative or become authoritarian. Through other questions respondents noted that while these styles were practiced, they were not approved.

If a host culture has perceptions of appropriate/inappropriate leadership behavior similar to these Kenyans, the adult educator would be well advised to use group-centered methodologies in the program's needs assessment, curriculum development, and training.

Group-centered Studies

Casse (1985), identifies three types of cross-cultural negotiations: compromise, synthesis, and synergy. In societies which prefer compromise, it is important to ascertain a majority viewpoint. Paper and pencil surveys with statistics would be appropriate here. Where synthesis is preferred, leaders need long meetings which allow each person, considered a decision maker, to give input. The chariman would formulate decisions which would include elements of various inputs. These first two types focus on the solutions, not the basic issues of the concern or problem. Synergy focuses on the basic issues and provide a framework by which a group can resolve them through creative and problem-solving interaction. While this type is seldom practiced without training, people with a synthesis orientation respond quickly to the process. Synergy allows the group to collaboratively identify the basic issues for community development.

Americans, due to our societal practices and values, tend to practice a compromise approach. During the needs assessment stage they tend to use paper and pencil surveys and statistics. While this approach satisfies the American's needs, local people, with a synthesis orientation, are perplexed how statistics can give a collective viewpoint. However, since the expatriate pays the bill and seems educated, the recipient host people are often reluctant to communicate their frustrations. Even if their dreams are not met, someone may get a job, a scarce commodity in many countries. While such a pragmatic attitude may resolve conflict at one level, it creates long-term conflict at another. Slowly, but surely, the accepted manner of leadership and decision-making is eroded, creating a vacuum which self-serving individuals can use.

Amirsaputre (1979) completed a study comparing group and interview/survey methods for assessment. He compared these two methods in rural Indonesia.

> A group as a method of community needs assessment in rural desas is more preferable than an interview approach, if effectiveness and efficiency are the criteria used in choosing a method (p. 237).

The author found that a group-centered, synergistic approach resulted in ownership and productivity in developing Kenyan church education (Harder, 1980). Such an approach encouraged personal growth and risk taking by adults who had minimal writing and planning experience.

Conclusion

Our approach to leadership and decision-making impacts on the acceptance of a program. It also builds or erodes the people's trust and confidence in their leaders and in themselves. Without this confidence people revert to fatalism, becoming victims of their own contexts. Building for a better future is then impossible.

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PREPARING NON-EXPERIENCED TEACHERS OF ADULTS: RESEARCH ISSUES

Dr. John A. Henschke

Associate Professor of Adult Education and Chair
Department of Educational Studies
University of Missouri-St. Louis

and

Continuing Education Specialist
Region VI-East/West Gateway Area
University Extension-
University of Missouri

201 Marillac Hall
Department of Educational Studies
University of Missouri-St. Louis
8001 Natural Bridge Road
St. Louis, Missouri 63121-4499

ABSTRACT:

The expansive growth of adult and continuing education has brought with it many teachers who have subject matter expertise, but have no background, training or experience in teaching adults. While there are many of these people who are naturally successful in teaching adults, others may need assistance in becoming equipped for effective teaching in an adult learning setting. Attention is given to some adult education literature which implies, without directly stating, that research on the value of the training needs to emerge out of the model of practice. This research issue paper sets forth a new five-step theoretical model of training practice which could be implemented for preparing non-experienced teachers of adults. The model includes: beliefs and notions about adult learners; perceptions concerning qualities of effective teachers; phases and sequences of the learning process; teaching tips and learning techniques; and, implementing the prepared plan. It is proposed that this model of training practice be a grounding source for generating needs for research on the relative effectiveness of training and preparing non-experienced teachers of adults. The foregoing would obviously help create a bridge or at least help clarify how one bridge could be built between theory and practice of teaching adults. In addition, it may provide a closer link between some of the researchers and practitioners in the whole enterprise of helping adults learn.

PREPARING NON-EXPERIENCED TEACHERS OF ADULTS: RESEARCH ISSUES

Literature and popular belief in adult, continuing and community education suggest that competence in subject matter has traditionally served as a sufficient qualification for individuals who teach adults. For most educators and trainers in programs for adults, neither adult teaching experience nor formal preparation for teaching the adult learner is a requirement for obtaining a position - temporary or permanent.

Need for Formal Preparation Questioned

It is assumed by some that if one knows the content or subject matter, competence in teaching it to other adults is automatically included in that knowing. While others would disagree with this automatic inclusion they would say that the potential to teach is something one is born with. Thus, they suggest that those faced with the responsibility of teaching the content they know to other adults, will approach this task as would any intelligent adult chosen at random - on the basis of some opinion and reading, some hunches and some kind of knowledge coupled with the experience of living. Training for them is not, in their estimation, necessary. Much less, research which reflects the opposite is most usually considered by them as an artificial "ivory-tower" roadblock, quite irrelevant and unnecessary to their purpose, concocted by an academic person's imagination, not rooted in the practical, and most certainly a time waster.

Need Recognized by Some

There is some recognition of need for training necessary in preparing teachers of adults who have no experience. Much of the recognition comes from those placed in a position of teaching without having prior experience. They know they need help but are not sure where to turn. Professional adult educators publish some video, audio, graphic and print materials highlighting the need for such preparation. But the major impact is limited to those who already know where and from whom it may be available. Furthermore, such materials are usually targeted toward those teachers who have some understanding of the need rather than to those who have only an unclear understanding of their need for help. In addition, many administrators who could and should encourage this kind of preparation for their staff, do not know of its necessity or availability.

Little Systematic Preparation Happening

Whether the attitude toward preparing non-experienced teachers of adults derives from its being perceived as unnecessary if not detrimental, or from a lack of understanding the benefits arising from preparation, the net result is about the same. Very little systematic preparation is happening in either case. Some may declare that the issue needs to be ignored. Thus it will take care of itself. In other situations it is argued that the subject matter specialists will not spend the time a preparatory training session would take. There are those subject matter specialists who succeed quite well teaching others their craft without special training and preparation. Although this is true, it is far too crucial a matter to depend upon its happening in every case.

Issues Vital to Both Practitioners and Researchers

This issue is of vital importance to the practice side of adult and continuing education in a variety of institutions. Some are moving into this arena of providing educational programs beyond K-12 and 18-22 year old college students for the first time. Others are continuing their lengthy history in these activities. In either situation subject matter experts who have no preparation are being pressed into teaching service. At best, they are experiencing a mixture of success and failure. Many institutions involved in this are having a drop-out rate up to thirty-five percent of those who enroll. Some obviously are not that dramatic. However, they have no source of help to turn to either for explaining and understanding the mixed results,much less for turning the failures around.

This issue is also vital to the researchers. Many times they will spend much time pondering what elements in the field of adult education need to be researched. Many will generate knowledge on the teaching and learning process. Their findings will be psychologically, sociologically, theoretically, intellectually and scientifically sound. Some will seek to affirm that their findings on how children learn automatically hold for how adults learn. Additionally, they may pursue some other line of research that they consider important to them or will be published in a journal read only by their peers. Then they wonder why the practitioners ignore their research findings. The researchers also become distressed concerning the fact that they missed the target the practitioner is concerned about - that their findings on the teaching and learning process did not answer the question on how to stem-the-tide of drop-outs.

Source to Generate Research Needs

Where is the most appropriate source to turn to for generating research needs relating to systematic preparation of non-experienced teachers of adults? Some of the adult education literature implies an answer to this question even though it does not directly state a position.

Norton (1986) suggests that the six module series on teaching adults is for teaching-in-training. Further indication states that the modules are based on fifty competencies unique and important to teachers of adults. These findings were identified and verified by a process of research rooted in the practice of instructing adults.

Mocker (1987) a known practitioner and researcher in speaking on the topic of selecting adult basic education teachers and staff, identifies five critical characteristics which obviously confirm his indication that they are based on his experience and research.

Malcolm S. Knowles (1950,1980,1987) throughout his lengthy adult education career grounded his research on recruiting adult education teachers, teacher's process plan, and competencies necessary for adult educators in the needs that were indicated from his practice.

Collins (1987) expresses concern for not being taken in by the advocates of competency-based education, who he says are for the most part behaviorists. He indicates that by doing philosophy and not just talking about philosophy, both practice and research in adult education may be enriched. Once again, this new perspective emphasizes the total human dimension, and makes sure the trap is avoided of dividing the activity of the adult education professional into bits and pieces.

Renner (1983) depicts his material as a survival kit for instructors. He originally designed these as handouts for people attending his train-the-trainer workshops. This was produced out of his own practice as an adult educator. Later it was compiled into a book form. It is intended to be used by teachers to help keep their head above water the first few sessions they teach. It is not about adult education theories but a practical how-to handbook. A clear statement emphasizes that it will not be useful sitting on a dusty shelf. To be useful it must be used in practice by a human being, an adult educator. Practice is an important part of instruction. It seems obvious that accompanying research needs to be generated which will establish the relative value of the instructional processes suggested.

Merriam (1984) for instance suggests that there are several techniques available to intensify an adult's movement toward self-direction. Furthermore, adult's daily experience in decision-making imply their capability of being involved in planning and implementing their own learning. They are also able to assess the value of a learning experience. Thus, since adults are more or less self-directed, they should participate in planning, conducting and evaluating their own learning. It would be hard to imagine this happening only in theory and not in actuality if the value of it were to be researched. And it would require a teacher who is willing in practice to take the risks necessary to foster self-direction in the students: a model, abstraction, resource and colleague rather than authority figure, transmitter of information and judge.

In focusing on training the human spirit, Hagin (1978) believes or assumes that one's spirit can be educated just as one's mind can be educated. He asserts that the human spirit (or "heart" as Bellah and associates (1985) would label it) is the means by which the Lord enlightens the person with his message. He further suggests that the four rules to be followed in that training process are: meditating in the message, doing or practicing the message, giving the message first place in one's life, and by instantly obeying the voice of one's spirit. Whether or not one agrees with this is beside the point. The issue is that each of the aforementioned rules is anchored in the practice and experience of the learner. If this training or educating the human spirit is the substance of what a teacher is seeking to engage learners in, it is also anchored in human experience or practice. Thus the question of whether this learning can be validated is to be answered through research arising out of practice.

Callahan (1985) lists fifteen general guidelines and recommendations for creating good learning environments. Without exception these guidelines are anchored in the practice side of the adult education enterprise. One illustration would be that participants require encouragement and support for the total time of a learning experience. In addition, that group support and emotional encouragement can give assurance/confidence. Recommendations that follow would include: help learners set attainable multiple goals; attend needs expressed by participants; and, to minimize failure let them work at their own speed. When these are designed into the conduct of the learning experience, it is only one more step to design the research that will support or nullify the hypothesis.

Brookfield (1986) in his extensive analysis on Understanding and Facilitating Adult Learning emphasizes four prominent themes in developing adult learning programs if they are to be successful. First, focus on learner characteristics and needs, not organizational needs. Second, contextual factors alter plans of programs and make them less than perfect; and practitioners need not despair because of this. Third, professional performance needs to include "playing hunches," "using intuition," and improvising. Fourth, recognize the appropriate use of a multiplicity of methods and techniques. A final note suggests that theories-in-use by practitioners in the actual program setting is a very evident research need.

Knox (1986) cites fifteen procedures which characterize one's teaching style on helping adults learn, such as: active learning, meanings, variety, interpersonal relations, past and future, self-direction for learners, and others. Research could be appropriately designed which would answer such practice questions as: Does the variety of methods used fit the requirements of the objectives and content while also preventing boredom for participants? and, Does the attention given help the participants learn how to learn, explore and assume responsibility for direction of their learning activities? Most if not all of the above references underscore and alude to,if not outright declare,that research needs to grow out of practice in the preparation of adult educators - and especailly non-experienced ones.

The most pronounced illustration, however, of the need for research growing out of practice comes from Schon (1987). He suggests the need for a new epistomology of practice, reflection-in-action (a professional thinking what he or she is doing while doing it, research arising out of practice). Instead, he claims that contemporary research universities give privileged status to systematic, preferably scientific, knowledge. The school's prevailing epistemology of practice, technical rationality, separates research from practice. This leaves no room for reflection-in-action, and thereby creates a dilemma of rigor or relevance.

If there is one thing non-experienced teachers of adults need in preparation for the job, it is relevance mixed with some rigor. The rigor alone is likely to solidify their already unspoken notion that all they need is knowledge of their subject-matter, and they can teach it to others. On the other hand, a major question still remains: What are the conditions under which one learns to learn and what educational ingredients encourage learning to learn in adults?

There are some ideas which have been used in practice-the practice of teaching adults-which can be used as a starting point. But the starting point of research-in-practice needs to be more than a random selection of a small bit from here and a piece from over there. There needs to be a coherent model to guide the preparation of non-experienced teachers of adults. Then the research can be anchored in the model of practice. Thus, those practices found by research to meet the objectives of adequate preparation will be reinforced. Those practices found by research to fail to meet the intended objectives could be replaced with new ones which would be tested and thoroughly researched.

A Model for Non-Experienced Teachers of Adults

This model proposes that there are five building blocks for beginning the task of preparing non-experienced teachers of adults:

- Beliefs and notions about adult learners;
- Perceptions concerning qualities of effective teachers;
- Phases and sequences of the learning process;
- Teaching tips and learning techniques; and,
- Implementing the prepared plan.

The model suggests that the best results would be attained by teachers making improvements on each building block as it applies to a specific teaching situation in which one is involved. Each building block then needs to be thoroughly researched as to its contribution or lack of the same to improve teaching and learning.

However, the model is structured so that all steps need not be undertaken to make some improvement. Each step taken will lead to some improvement. Although, the more steps that are taken, the more improvement will result. Following is clarification of the five steps in the model.

I. Beliefs and Notions About Adult Learners.

First, the adult learner has a potential and desire for self-directiveness which is interdependent and not in isolation. Second, as an adult learns and grows, he or she builds an increasing reservoir of experience to draw on for helping others to learn as well as advancing her or his own learning. Thus, learning experiences need to be structured to take advantage of the above.

II. Perceptions Concerning Qualities of Effective Teachers.

These qualities for effective teachers include: showing interest in the student and subject, able to communicate well, good knowledge of the subject, prepared to teach the lesson, enthusiastic, desire to instruct, sense of humor, being flexible, tact, patience, using a variety of teaching techniques, sensitivity and courtesy. Implementing these qualities in practice would be followed by appropriate research.

III. Phases and Sequences of the Learning Process.

This could be to provide that which will help the learner's yearn, learn, earn and return. Or, this could be portrayed as determining the content and the learning techniques, and organizing, developing, and delivering the training presentation. Research to test the effectiveness would follow.

IV. Teaching Tips and Learning Techniques.

The multiplicity of teaching techniques and tips which will breathe life into a learning experience for participants include: lecture, listening groups, buzz groups, motion picture, slides, reading, audio cassettes, demonstration, group discussion, huddle groups, case study, simulation, role play, teaching/learning teams. Varying types of learning activities would be: general sessions, small groups of various sizes for various purposes, individual consultation and directed study, reading, recreation, workshop and meditation, and, preparatory activity. Accompanying research would also be conducted.

V. Implementing the Prepared Plan.

This cannot be directly taught. It is an attitude that is of utmost importance: attitude toward one's self, toward the great potential of adults as learners, the opportunity of being involved in turning the lights on in their eyes; an attitude of being open to ideas that are different from those in the design; an attitude of caring and showing it; like hitting the groove, like zoning in tennis, like suddenly crossing the threshold and being able to ride the bicycle. Research would then provide extent of validation.

Summary.

The expansive growth of adult and continuing education has brought with it many teachers who have subject matter expertise, but have no background, training or experience in teaching adults. While there are many of these people who are naturally successful in teaching adults, others may need assistance in becoming equipped for effective teaching in an adult learning setting. Attention is given to some adult education literature which implies, without directly stating, that research on the value of the training needs to emerge out of the model of practice. This research issue paper sets forth a new five-step theoretical model of training practice which could be implemented for preparing non-experienced teachers of adults. It is proposed that this model of training practice be a grounding source for generating needs for research on the relative effectiveness of training and preparing non-experienced teachers of adults. The foregoing would obviously help create a bridge or at least help clarify how one bridge could be built between theory and practice of teaching adults. In addition, it may provide a closer link between some of the researchers and practitioners in the whole enterprise of helping adults learn.

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Behaviors of Unionized Workers During a Transition in Manufacturing

Jay T. Huston, Ed.D.
Noblesville, IN 46060

James H. McElhinney, Ph.D.
Ball State University

This research is an integral component of a larger research which studied an automotive corporation with 2600 employees as the factory changed from a traditional factory to a focused factory of the future. The research was conducted using a variation of the case study method. An important component of the larger study examined how unionized hourly workers responded to major element changes in manufacturing and work roles. The research question for the study reported here is "How will unionized hourly workers respond when their employer transforms a portion of the production facility from a traditional to a focused factory of the future?".

Many American industries in the last few years have seen their market share diminish as a result of fierce off-shore competition. These industries have realized that they have been complacent over a large number of years and that drastic changes were necessary for their future survival. The industry in this study chose to make radical changes from their traditional manner of doing business for one of their two major product lines in the following manner:

1) utilize all new manufacturing processes involving the latest computer numerical control (CNC) and robotics equipment.

2) utilize a new material flow process involving the Just-In-Time (JIT) strategy.

3) alter the traditional organizational culture to a supervisorless factory where the hourly workers are given more autonomy and decision-making power.

4) "Focus" the factory through a basic marketing strategy which emphasizes the unit's strengths and a manufacturing strategy synchronized with the marketing strategy where the equipment supporting systems, procedures and personnel concentrate on one product.

Prior to the change process, this UAW plant had been making attempts to chip away at many of the long-standing barriers between union and management through quality of worklife (QWL) and information sharing programs. The efforts of these programs were visible signs from the union of a willingness to cautiously establish a team effort based on mutual trust.

Evidence of this building trust was the involvement of representatives from the union on the management launch committee for the new factory during the initial planning stages. As union representatives became informed of the planned changes they also progressively became more committed to the new project. The active involvement of union personnel lead to the growth of positive relationships between them and management personnel. Five months into the project this relationship between management and union representatives quickly ceased. Members of the union committee cooperating with management were viewed as becoming "too close" to management and losing the proper union perspective. The result was the defeat by union membership vote of the existing union committee and their replacement by a group of older union employees who were more representative of the staunch union philosophies of the past and who were radically against cooperating to produce the new focus factory. Particularly dominant was the new chairman who was viewed by many union management employees as an anachronism due to his "60's approach" to management/union relations. The new committee refused to work with the new launch team and proved to be a constant thorn to the focus factory. This newly elected union committee attempted to maintain the traditional cultural identity of the factory by resisting the changes prescribed by the focus factory.

The first group of hourly employees selected for the focus factory was composed of 20 individuals who were to be team leaders. The union committee was extremely opposed to the selection process because it was partially based on past attendence records and work proformances rather than strictly by seniority. Many of the employees selected to be team leaders were attracted to the new factory because they saw opportunities to learn and operate the most advanced equipment and a chance to use their heads instead of simply loading/unloading machinery. These workers along with six unit managers went through an unprecedented 1000 hours of training which was conducted in the classroom (on-site and off-site), on-the-job, and at machine manufacturer's location in the United States and overseas. One result of this training was that team leaders were viewed enviously by the remaining hourly workforce as receiving "special" treatment. They were ostracized by a large portion of the union bargaining unit and union representatives. A positive result of the extensive training and conflict with other union workers who were outside the focus factory was that with managers bonds were created among the 20 team leaders and the unit manager. The bonding which developed resulted not only from having a "common foe" outside the focus factory, but through the in-depth understanding/empathy which occurred over time and shared training.

Once the focus factory began production, the operators (union members) experienced more autonomy and decision-making than they had experienced in previous jobs. Some encountered role ambiguity and pressure due to additional duties which went with their new work roles. In some cases, the 20 new team leaders were expected to perform some of the functions which had previously been done by the foremen and manufacturing engineers. Even some of those in the "20" who appreciated the new role felt that they were occupied with other duties when they should have been running the machines to meet production deadlines.

The vast majority of the hourly workers who chose to go to the focus factory saw it as an exciting opportunity. They were learning the latest technologies and enhancing their skills which would lead to increased marketability. They saw the focus factory concept as necessary for the organization's survival and their own security. However, not all of the hourly workers responded well to the new autonomous role afforded them in the new focused factory. Particularly some of the older workers, acculturated at a time when they were "not paid to think" did not respond as well to the unsupervised environment. Some of these same workers who had been employed at GRS for many years appeared more cynical. Drawing on previous experiences they concluded that the planned changes were just another company "game" which they would play, but not "buy into".

Amidst many of the problems encountered, many American laborers exemplified a beacon of optimism for the viability of American industry. A large portion of the American workforce is anxiously waiting for the opportunity to move beyond "pushing buttons" and to become thinking and decision-making members of industry. Even formerly antogonistic workers reduced their antagonisms and became supportive of reasonable company expectations when the organization made sincere efforts to build a mutually supportive and productive relationship between labor and management. To a vast number of companies in the United States the proper utilization of the knowledge and experience of the American worker combined with the worker's acceptance of changes in competition will be the secret weapon used in the fight for industrial survival.

Conclusions:

When major changes are made within a large manufacturing plant and these changes directly effect only a small number of union employees the following responses and attitudes seem to occur:

I. The traditional adversarial attitudes and roles between union members and managers in manufacturing plants:

   A. Can be somewhat minimized among all union members when two-way communication is adequate to:

      1. convince union leadership to (both formal and informal) that the changes are necessary to both company and union.

      2. convince union membership that they and their union are not being victimized by management.

   B. Can be replaced in small numbers of union members by cooperation when small numbers of union members and managers spend days and weeks together in retraining programs when participating union members:

      1. are fully informed of what changes are planned.

      2. are helped to understand not only what, but why the changes are being made.

3. are treated as worthy persons during training
4. perceive themselves and other union members as benefiting from the changes rather than being exploited by the changes.

C. Are reinforced among the majority of union members when the changes made by management are seen as providing preferential treatment to some union members and the union members selected to participate:

1. are selected using criteria other than seniority (for example: attendance records, absence of "write-ups", etc.).
2. appear to get favored treatment (for example: paid travel to attractive locations for training, more autonomy on the job).
3. receive training and subsequent work assignments which include participating in decisions from which union members were formerly excluded (for example: deciding when a proposed process needs changing; deciding when a part needs modification).
4. are given work assigments that appear to make their employment more secure than the employment of most union members.

II. Communicating effectively with union members by management about impending changes:

A. Builds support effectively among union members for planned changes in manufacturing when:

1. The information contains enough of:
   a. what the changes will be.
   b. why the changes will be made.
   c. how the changes will effect, positively and negatively, the union members.
2. The information is adequate to minimize the union members' suspicion that management is taking advantage of them as individuals or is weakening the union as an organization.

B. Increases distrust in union members of management when:

1. The amount and kind of information are preceived as inadequate to reassure union members that:
   a. the advantages of the proposed changes are necessary and important to the company and employees.
   b. the disadvantages of the proposed changes are made acceptable because they are:

    1. forced by conditions beyond the control of the company or union.
    2. the union employees and the union receive adequate returns for what they are relinquishing.

2. Previously announced plans are changed in major ways and the what, why, and how of these changes are not examined with union members to the extent that union members find the changes believable the acceptable.

Abstract

The Study of Human Resource Development Practitioners' Communication Methods in Organizations

Clifford O. Ihejieto-Aharanwa
Doctoral Candidate and Graduate Assistant
Northern Illinois University
Gabel 101
DeKalb, IL 60115

Nadler (1979), identifies human resource development as having three learning areas: improving performance on an individual's present job (training); preparing an individual for an identified job in the not-too-distant future (education); and general growth not related to any specific job (development). Pace (1983), observes that within each of these learning areas, specific choices of training and development methods are based on one or more of three different philosophies or theories of producing change in human beings—rational, behavioral, and experiential as advanced by Bandura (1969). Each of these approaches has different learning implications and therefore demand that the human resource development practitioner adopt the appropriate communication methods for a particular learning area and the governing theory. Hitherto, the HRD practitioner engage adult learners in training, education and development in organizations without much attention as to which context a particular behavior approach should be used.

This paper examines the HRD practitioners' communication methods in organizations. Specifically, the paper looks at: (1) how an HRD instructor (i.e., training, education, and development specialist) adopting the rational, behavioral, and experiential theories can communicate in training, education, and development areas of learning, and (2) the implications of each learning area and approach on adult learners. A rational approach to learning tends to be consistent with the learning in education; the behavior approach matches the learning in training and development; whereas the experiental approah typifies the learning also in development.

Because the instructor's theoretical orientation influences what is communicated to the adult learners, the implications are: (1) In behavioral approach, communication is essentially linear; emphasis is on mastery of the subject; the instructor is in command. This process establishes a superior-subordinate relationship. (2) In cognitive approach, communication climate is supportive as learners beliefs and personal meanings interface in the learning situations. (3) Experiential learning is collaborative in that it is learner-centered, emphasizing shared-membership. It maintains humanistic philosophy by striving for individuals' self-actualization and organizational change and growth.

The study of Human Resource Development Practitioners' Communication Methods in Organizations

Nadler (1979), identifies human resource development as having three learning areas: improving performance on an individual's present job (training); preparing an individual for an identified job in the not-too-distant future (education); and general growth not related to any specific job (development). Pace (1983), observes that within each of these learning areas, specific choices of training and development methods are based on one or more of three different philosophies or theories of producing change in human beings--rational, behavioral, and experiential as advanced by Bandura (1969). Each of these approaches has different learning implications and therefore demand that the human resource development practitioner adopt the appropriate communication methods for a particular learning area and the governing theory. Hitherto, the HRD practitioner engage adult learners in training, education and development in organizations without much attention as to which context a particular behavior approach should be used. The ASTD (1983) identifies 15 different HRD specialists, all of whom instruct, train, consult, manage, etc.; Nadler (1980) puts the specialists in three groups—learning, administrator, and consultant, while Pace (1983) sees the specialists as 12. But it is startling to note that there is no information designed to help an HRD practitioner adopt the appropriate communication methods for a particular learning area. The ASTD lists what it calls "critical competencies" for the specialists. These are intellectual characteristics addressing what the practitioner should possess, leaving out which method to use in practice. So far, Zenger (1980), notes that the HRD practitioners have relied on ineffective teaching methodology. The ability to recognize and select appropriate methods for enhancing human resource development is important for individuals and organizations... (Pace, 1983). Nadler (1980), points out as he discusses the "Instructional strategies for HRD" that if there is the need for learning, then whoever is conducting the experience should know how to instruct, and know what strategies (methods) are most appropriate for that situation.

This paper attempts to examine the HRD practitioners' communication methods in organizations. Due to the intricacy and diversity of the topic, and the brevity of the paper, focus is on: (1) how an HRD instructor (i.e., training, education, and development specialist) adopting the rational, behavioral, and experiential theories can communicate in training, education, and development areas of learning, and (2) the implications of each learning area and approach on adult learners. Communication methods as used here refers to "the delivery and management of the instruction...the instructor in conjunction with the use of media is the delivery method (Kearsley, 1984)." The instructor uses print and electronic materials, lecture, buzz group, panel discussion, self-study, etc. in teaching or inculcating ideas. Since HRD encompasses three learning areas: training, education, and development, some of the research questions are: (1) What is learning and how does it occur in those three areas? (2) Is instructing and training same? (3) Since training, education, and development differ in content, context, and structure, how would the instructor communicate, with which theoretical approach? (4) What are the implications for practice on adult learners?

Learning

Central to the concept of training, education, and development in HRD is the term learning. Gagne (1985) defines learning as a change in human disposition or capability that persists over a period of time and is not simply ascribable to processes of growth. Estes (1975) says, "learning always refers to some systematic change in behavior or behavioral disposition that occurs as a consequence of experience in some specified situation." For cognitive-field psychologists, learning is a change or reorganization of the insights into, or the cognitive structure of, a contemporaneous life or situation. That is, it is a change in knowledge, skills attitudes, values, or expectations and may or may not be closely related to some change in overt behavior.

These definitions are saying the same thing about learning somewhat; they agree that learning denotes change in human behavior; persists over time; and it is born out of experience. The definitions presuppose that learning is an organized, conscious activity; they are consistent with the HRD activities in training, education, and development as Nadler points out.

Learning according to Bateson,

(1) Denotes change, but the degrees and the types of change may differ,

(2) Is a communication process, but the degrees and the types of communication may differ, and

(3) Involves the mastery of new approaches or solutions to problems.

However, the learning in training activity is not necessarily the same as in education activity, nor can it be equated with that of development component of HRD. According to Nadler training includes learning activities that enable the employee to perform his or her job; education, learning activities that enable the employee to move into a new position; development, learning activities that enable the employee to acquire conceptual and problem-solving skills, attitudes, and knowledge so as to produce a viable and flexible employees who can activate and guide organizational change and renewal. This means that training is short term with effective job performance as its goal. Education on the other hand is long term and for individual well-being; while development is for organizational change and growth. Granted that the learning activities in the three HRD components are correct, the question is will the HRD practitioners be instructing or training?

Instruction and Training

Green (1974), makes a distinction between training and instructing. In his article "A Topology of the Teaching Concept," he states:

> ...that instructing necessarily involves a kind of conversation, a giving of reasons, evidence, objections and so on, it is an activity of teaching allied more closely to the acquisition of knowledge and belief than to the promotion of habits and modes of behavior. Training, on the contrary, has to do with forming modes of habit and behavior and less with acquiring knowledge and belief. Instructing, in short, is more closely related to the quest for understanding.

Further, Green (1974) mentions that people can be trained to do certain things without making any effort to bring them to an understanding of what they do; whereas it is logically impossible to instruct someone without at the same time attempting to bring him to some understanding.

In HRD, the term training has become generic for the learning activities that transpire in training, education, and development in organizations. To the extent that workers or management learning activity taking a lecture stance is inadvertently called training session. It is plausible for an instructor to do both training and instructing depending on what the assignment is, after all, they are both components of teaching. Technically, however, training tantamounts to drill, a learning activity having to do with acquiring skills and forming modes of habit and behavior. Instructing on the other hand, assumes a curriculum mode with the acquisition of knowledge and belief as the goal. However, as learning activity takes place in the three HRD components—training, education, and development, it involves adult learners, who may fit into one or two of three philosophies or theories of producing change. How would the instructor communicate and with which theoretical approach?

Behavior Theories that Govern Learning

If the assumption that learning in training, education, and development is different in purpose, context, and content, then an appropriate behavioral modeling theoretical approach is very essential. In the learning schools, behaviorists, cognitivists, and humanists each see learning differently. For behaviorists, determinism is the sine quo non of learning. Cognitivists believe that what is inside of the organism as well as the environment influence learning. Humanists focus on the quality of the interpersonal relationship that exists between teacher and learner.

Pace (1983), advances three assumptions about the application of the rational (cognitive), behavioral and experiential (humanistic) to training and development:

1. A human resource developer using rational theory would select strategies that focus on changing beliefs.

2. The basic premise underlying the behavioral approach to training and development is that behaviors occur as a consequence of reinforcements—any event that rewards the behavior immediately preceding it.

3. An experiential approach is based on the premise that people believe what they experience; hence experiential training is structured around having trainees learn from their experience.

Since Pace did not indicate which one of these three methods are used specifically for the learning in training, education or development, it is assumed that all three methods are used in the three learning areas. However, a careful examination of the above assumptions made by Pace will indicate:

(a) that a HRD instructor who uses the rational theory and focuses on changing beliefs apparently engages in the learning activity that occurs in education component of HRD. A rational approach to training and development builds on the powerful effect that beliefs, personal meanings, language, and self-verbalization have on behavior (Pace, 1983). Craighead, Kazdin, and Mahoney (1976) note that "individuals respond to language in the form of instructions, commands and rules that govern behavior." Adult learners in organizations paying attention to beliefs, personal meanings, language, and self-verbalization are learning more than job skills; they are learning for future positions,

(b) that a HRD instructor who uses the behavioral approach and focuses on observable behaviors rather than ways of thinking engages in learning activity that occurs in training and development components of HRD. As Pace (1983) points out, three general methods represent the applications of behaviorism in training and development: (1) structuring contingencies, (2) simulations, and (3) modeling. Out of these three, modeling is known to be "the most exciting new technology in training (Zenger, 1980)". Organizational development methods frequently involve structural changes in the organization that serve to reduce negative consequences and increase positive consequences. Simulation, otherwise action training is (Odiorne, 1970) where adult learners learn from vicarious experience. The point about the behaviorism method is that unlike the rational method, learners form modes of habit and behavior from the trainer or one acting in behalf of the organization,

(c) that a HRD instructor who uses the experiential approach is essentially doing organizational development. The experiential approach is based on the premise that people are most likely to believe their own experience. People change their behaviors, it is assumed, by examining their current beliefs in view of their reactions to situations in which they experience some significant emotional feelings (Pace, 1983). Experiential learning begins with action; the action is then observed with the expectation that the same action in similar circumstances would have a similar effect; this may, in turn, lead to grasping a general principle that can be employed in situations in anticipation of predicted results (Rich, 1985). Experiential learning involves the development of new plans, HRD practitioners with special abilities, and the cooperation of workers and managers. Nevertheless each one of these theoretical approaches to learning discussed have communication implications on adult learners.

Implications

Since learning is a communication process, the instructor's theoretical orientation influences what is communicated to the adult learners. When such is the case, the implications are: (1) In behavioral approach, communication is essentially linear; emphasis is on mastery of the subject; the instructor is in command. This process establishes a superior-subordinate relationship. (2) In cognitive approach, communication climate is supportive as learners beliefs and personal meanings interface in the learning situations. (3) Experiential learning is collaborative in that it is learner-centered, emphasizing shared-membership. It maintains humanistic philosophy by striving for individuals' self-actualization and organizational change and growth.

The foregoing list of HRD practice communication implications is by no means exhaustive, or can it be taken for granted. Research is needed to help point out to the HRD practitioners especially the instructors the appropriate communication methods for a particular learning area and the governing theory--for adult learners to be better served.

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THE APPLICATION OF A MODIFIED DELPHI TECHNIQUE IN JOB TASK ANALYSIS FOR ADULT EDUCATION

Lloyd Korhonen - Chair, Adult and Community Education
University of Oklahoma

College of Education
820 Van Vleet Oval
Norman, OK 73019

Abstract

The problem of this research was to establish a research model for job task analysis. This job task analysis is to be used as a basis for the development of a curriculum model for the education of adult students. In this case the field was criminal justice.

The researcher was asked to analyze the job tasks involved in police work done by entry level police officers. With this job task analysis being later utilized for the development of a three hundred hour curriculum. The task analysis was developed with two research components, a group process and a field validation process.

Of the seven task areas developed by the modified Delphi technique there were only nominal changes in positions when the field validation was completed, except for one area: communications. In this case the group method placed it first in order and the field validation last. The dramatic difference in this one task area leads to the speculation that group process may foster a keener appreciation of communications, or the experienced officers that worked on the tasks and the respondents to the survey are in different type occupations with law enforcement. This one difference, however, was not continued in any of the other task areas and was not found in the ordering of the duties within task areas.

Given the results of this study this analysis does show great promise fo use by adult educators when working with jobs, task and duties when the outcomes are training models or curriculum models for adults.

THE APPLICATION OF A MODIFIED DELPHI TECHNIQUE IN JOB TASK ANALYSIS FOR ADULT EDUCATION

Lloyd Korhonen, University of Oklahoma

Introduction

This job task analysis was initiated for the purpose of examining the responsibilities and duties that are incumbent in the role of peace officer. It was decided that a complete examination would lead to better and more timely training of beginning officers in the State of Oklahoma. The Council for Law Enforcement Education and Training is mandated to provide such training to all officers within their first year of service. It was intended that this analysis enhance that training process and add validity to the training venture.

Modified Delphi Techniques

This component utilized fifteen selected police officers from the State of Oklahoma. The fifteen officers were divided into three groups. Each of the groups worked independently during the initial stages of job task development. We utilized a time/task method. The individual groups defined tasks and duties by using one-half hour blocks of time that covered an entire eight hour shift period. The results of that time/task analysis were combined during open large group disucssions. Where consensus could be reached that process took precedence. Where consdnsus could not be reached a numerical ranking system was utilized. Both the task area and duty development within task areas were derived in the same two stage manner.

The selection of the job task analysis team was a critical factor in the total job task analysis process, as the individuals selected would provide the initial validation procedure.

Criteria for Selection of Task Team Members

1. Experienced first line officers - Individuals who have had recent field experience. (This was defined as within the last three years)
2. Articulate but not argumentative - Although this is a difficult criterion to define, we were able to communicate this factor and the selection reflected that careful selection.
3. Hard workers - The initial job task analysis process is a difficult period. It took concentrated work in two long three-day sessions to complete the process.
4. Ability to be Released for Short Periods - We needed to have blocks of time that were uninterrupted. The participants worked, ate and lived in the same environment for six days.

The first process that each of the groups completed was to define a "typical day" in the life of a first-line peace officer. All education and training professionals are well aware that there may not be a typical day, but each of the groups were consistent in their analysis. We utilized the time/task method. Each of the groups defined duties and tasks by using one-half hour blocks of time that covered the entire shift period. In other words, what did the officer do from 8:00 AM to 4:00 PM on a typical day. This process was important to clarify and define the role.

Definitions

All the terms utilized in this process were evolved by the Delphi participants. This was important in order to establish clarity.

Duty: A large segment of work performed by an individual. A distinct, major activity within a vocation. A duty consists of several related tasks. Some police duties: accident investigation, patrol work, investigate crimes.

Group Tasks/Duties Needed

In order to establish order out of the individual tasks and duties, it was necessary to group them under broad task areas. This process took great care and discussion. Clearly some duties and tasks are evident in more than one task area. Seven task areas were finally defined:

PATROL:	"Those duties involving the enforcement of laws and civil liberties, and the protection of life and property through active community intervention."
SAFETY:	"Those duties that tend to promote the physical and emotional safety of officers and the public."
COMMUNICATIONS:	"Those duties that involve effective communication within the law enforcement community and between law enforcement and the public."
ADMINISTRATION:	"Those duties involving application and compliance with inter and intra agency policies, regulations, reports, records, and laws."
HUMAN RELATIONS:	"Those duties that tend to promote proactive individual interaction between law enforcement and the community."
INVESTIGATIONS:	"Those duties that involve technical and personal skills required in successful examination and disposition of civil, criminal, and traffic cases."
LAW:	"Those duties involving the lawful application of statutory law, constitutional law, and criminal procedure, within the police context."

These task areas were defined and redefined by the task analysis team to take into account the many duties that were involved in each task. An important modification of the Delphi process was to add measures that could be statistically handled. this was done by asking that each of the groups rank order task areas, and later duties in terms of criticality and frequency. This process was evolved to solve an initial problem of deciding the importance of items. In this analysis frequency (how often is the task or duty performed) and criticality (how important is that task or duty) are given equal weight. The rank ordering of these items became the combined score of both measures.

The job task team developed seven task areas that are a part of the role of a first line peace officer. They also evolved eighty of their duties that are a part of these seven task areas. Through consensus and numerical ranking they ordered these task areas and duties. The job task team ranked the tasks in the following order: 1. Commuications; 2. Patrol; 3. Law; 4. Investigations; 5. Safety; 6. Human Relations; 7. Administration.

Field Validation

The results of the job task analysis were sent to all police agencies in the State of Oklahoma in survey form. Of the total of 491 surveys sent, 305 were returned for a total return of sixty-two percent. this brief paper does not allow space for the publication of that survey.

The survey contained the task area and duties developed by the task team. These task areas, and duties within task areas, were randomly reordered to prevent guiding the respondents. A five point Likert scale was utilized to analyze both "criticality" (how critical is the task to success on the job) and 'frequency" (how often is the task performed). For each of the duties there was a potential for a total of ten points, five for "criticality" and five for "frequency." Means of all items were analyzed for a total mean for each duty for cirticality, frequency, and total item mean. The seven task areas and eighty-three duties were rank ordered by analysis of the total mean responses and T tests where appropriate. Three types of analysis were developed; a comparison of city and county responses, a comparison of ten geographic regions, and a total population analysis. The results of the survey were statistically analyzed and compared to the modified Delphi Technique.

Analysis of Task Areas by Task Force Results
and State Validation Results

	State Validation Rank Order	M		Task Force Rank Order	M
1.	Law	7.770	1.	Communications	129.29
2.	Patrol	7.619	2.	Patrol	127.77
3.	Safety	7.333	3.	Law	122.50
4.	Investigations	7.269	4.	Investigations	119.47
5.	Administration	7.252	5.	Safety	114.92
6.	Human Relations	7.115	6.	Human Relations	114.75
7.	Communications	6.947	7.	Administration	110.58

Note: The means of each group were derived from different data. The numerical differences inthe sclaes are of no significance.

The results of the survey indicated that the rank order was only significantly different in one area: Communications. In this one area the task team ranked it first and the field validation last. This is a rather unusual finding. It may well be that the group process enhances the understanding and appreciation of communications. All other task areas, although ordered somewhat differently, were not noticeably out of line.

Results of Field Validation

For the purposes of analysis, the field validation process took precendence over the task team results. This is due to the reliability of a sample of over three hundred responses. This was necessary, in this case, due to the legal ramifications of peace officer training. The validity of the results might easily be used in legal actions. In order to satisfy questions of regional or jurisdictional difference, two additional analyses were completed. The state was divided into ten geographic areas. An analysis of these ten geographic areas might provide better regional education. The last analysis was one of jurisdiction: city, county, other (including state agencies).

The analysis by region produces some very interesting results. The analysis showed that the regions enjoy much more similarity than difference. In other words, they seem to analyze problems in the same way, however, there were two exceptions to this conclusion. In region seven (Oklahoma City Area) there were much higher ratings for communications and administration and lower ones for investigations and human relations. This may be due to the larger departments needs in an urban area. It may, also, be due to the fact that in these areas the survey respondents have more of these duties.

The second exception is clearly a geographic one. The rural regions of the state indicate a much higher rank order for investigations. This probably shows that in

TASK AREA COMPARISON
BY JURISDICTION
(City, County, Other)

	Communication	Administration	Human Relations	Investigation	Law	Patrol	Safety
Municipal	CC 3.738	AC 3.868	HC 3.830	IC 3.982	LC 4.197	PC 4.209	SC 4.112
(N-206)	CF 3.206	AF 3.347	HF 3.287	IF 3.357	LF 3.642	PF 3.588	SF 3.317
	C (6.945)	A (7.214)	H (7.117)	I (7.399)	L (7.839)	P (7.797)	S (7.429)
(RANK)	7	5	6	4	1	2	3
County	CC 3.705	AC 3.948	HC 3.836	IC 3.912	LC 4.014	PC 3.914	SC 3.923
(N-55)	CF 3.327	AF 3.570	HF 3.534	IF 3.468	LF 3.546	PF 3.438	SF 3.228
	C (7.032)	A (7.519)	H (7.370)	I (7.380)	L (7.560)	P (7.352)	S (7.152)
(RANK)	7	2	4	3	1	5*	6
Other	CC 3.736	AC 3.802	HC 3.760	IC 3.958	LC 4.154	PC 4.063	SC 4.070
(N-25)	CF 3.240	AF 3.198	HF 3.106	IF 3.156	LF 3.518	PF 3.244	SF 3.033
	C (6.976)	A (7.000)	H (6.865)	I (7.114)	L (7.673)	P (7.308)	S (7.103)
(RANK)	6	5	7	3	1	2	4

*Significant Difference

smaller departments this is a more widely recognized area of concern, or, possibly because smaller departments use their patrol personnel as generalists.

The last analysis performed was to determine whether there existed any differences by jurisdiction. In this analysis a city/county/other designation was used. For purposes of this analysis only city and county will be discussed because the "other" failed to produce an adequate number of responses for proper analysis. It would be proper to use the "other" category, understanding that the strength of response is much lower. (see table)

Only one significant difference was found in this analysis. In the area of Patrol there was a significant difference between county and city. City respondents rated it second and county fifth. The magnitude of the difference accounts for its significance.

Even though no other significant areas emerged, two other trends were clearly established. The county respondents rated administration as the second highest concern and safety as the next to last concern. The city respondents placed administration fifth and safety third. This is a similar finding to some in the regional analysis.

Conclusions/Implications

The importance of this type of study to adult and community education is evident. It provides a methodology to be used with agencies, business and industry and economic development units of state government. Adult and community education professionals are being asked to provide expertise into elements of job training and job performance. Without some guided method this process is difficult, if not impossible to complete. In this case, law enforcement, it demanded other requirements that were necessary due to the legal process. The use of a modified delphi technique for both group process and field validation shows promise for providing necessary data for training activities.

As a result of this study the curriculum is being completely rewritten to conform to the results. A secondary and not unimportant factor is that out of all respondents only one felt that this process was not both needed and effective.

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title: Americanization and Assimilation: 1910-1920

author: Michael Krischer

home address: 701 Eddy Street -- Sandwich, IL 60548

work: educator -- School District 428 -- Sheridan
Correctional Center -- Sheridan, IL 60551

educational affiliation: M.S. Ed. (1987) Northern Illinois
University -- Dekalb,IL 60115

ABSTRACT

The Americanization movement was an attempt to speed up the assimilation of immigrants because of fears regarding their loyalty. Its leaders, Frances Kellor and Peter Roberts, sought to use educational means to secure the allegiance of adult immigrants. Although they were motivated by concern for the plight of the immigrant, Kellor and Roberts did not consider whether immigrants desired to participate in Americanization programs. In contrast, Jane Addams and Grace Abbott approached assimilation as a sociological process that contributed to the immigrants' feeling of dislocation. They knew that adult immigrants could not avoid certain changes if they were to cope with life in the United States. Furthermore, until immigrants could participate in the political process, they would be unable to confront the social problems which most affected them. The conflict over the nature of assimilation reflects a difference of opinion over the role of education in the life of the adult immigrant -- for Kellor and Roberts education would eliminate the distinction between immigrant and native-born, while for Addams and Abbott it was a preliminary step toward the solution of a complex social problem.

AMERICANIZATION AND ASSIMILATION: 1910-1920

Assimilation is the process by which immigrants exchange the culturally determined behavior patterns of their own society for those of the society in which they reside. Assimilation is not an inevitable result of migration; according to Webster's Third New International Dictionary (1976), the alternative is acculturation, "a process of intercultural borrowing" that results in "new and blended patterns" (p. 3). This type of melting pot theory has not usually been characteristic of the conscious response of American society to large-scale immigration, however appropriate it may seem as an after-the-fact description of the effects of immigration. Assimilation has often been associated with schooling; this is especially true during periods of crisis when demands are made upon immigrant groups for an accelerated process of assimilation. Americanization is simply another term for this same process. It is by definition an educational movement that seeks to produce a more complete assimilation in a shorter period than would be the case if only more informal means were employed. Since many immigrants tend to be young adults, Americanization becomes a movement concerned with providing educational services to adults.

One such crisis was the period around America's entry into World War I. The Americanization movement was a response to the large number of Southern and Eastern European immigrants and a perceived crisis regarding their loyalty and patriotism. Although it is often characterized as a short-lived product of wartime hysteria, the Americanization movement was part of a wider movement to improve the conditions under which immigrants lived. That is to say, Americanization must be seen as an aspect of Progressivism. According to Hofstadter (1955), only a minority of Progressives thought that the new immigrants were innately inferior to the earlier Anglo-Saxon immigrants (p. 179). However, he does see the typical Progressive as torn by feelings of ambiguity as "the old nativist ... prejudice is held in check by a strenuous effort of mind and will...." produced by an admiration for "the courage of the immigrant, the reality of his hardships, [and] the poignancy of his deracination" (p. 181). Wiebe (1967) has tried to make sense out of this paradoxical combination of prejudice and pity by viewing the process of Americanization through assimilation as a kind of rite of passage for immigrants. Once they had been Americanized they would be able to participate in a political process that would lead to amelioration of their living conditions: "Through a curriculum rich in civics and through classes for adults ..., the schools would facilitate the arrival of Social Rationality preparing the nation for a higher civilization" (p. 157).

This paper will contrast the views on assimilation of two leaders of the Americanization movement, Frances Kellor and Peter Roberts, with those of two settlement workers strongly identified with the cause of immigrant welfare and Progressive reform, Jane Addams and Grace Abbott. The supporters of Americanization believed that assimilation as an educational objective for adult immigrants was a cure for the temporary dislocations caused by the arrival of large numbers of immigrants, while the critics of this approach did not deny that assimilation was taking place or even that it should take place. Rather they viewed it as a process that brought with it certain harmful side effects. They sought to control and to slow down the process since they saw it as disruptive of family life and a source of intergenerational conflict. Rather than being a solution, assimilation was another of the immigrants' problems.

Frances Kellor with her usual zeal defined assimilation as the "indistinguishable incorporation of the races into the substance of American life" (1919, p. 285). Obviously she was influenced by the patriotic fervor and the total involvement that marked the war effort, but the groundwork had been laid earlier. Progressive reform called for self sacrifice on the part of the reformer as well as an increased role for government. When she called for the total recreation of American society, she had in mind a kind of gigantic outpouring of voluntary effort under the umbrella of a consciously articulated and well-funded publicy: "Nation building is to be in the future a deliberate formative process" (1919, p. 285). There is always in Kellor a tension between calling for extreme public effort and government coercion, and one is often not sure when she has tipped in favor of the latter. Discrimination against immigrants in housing and employment was condemned without calling for specific remedies, but when it came to attempting to influence the distribution of immigrants, she was in favor of strong measures by all levels of government (1911, pp. 4-8). It would be a mistake to attribute to her a desire for modern civil-rights legislation, but it would be equally wrong to say that she favored a government-sponsored resettlement or relocation policy. The Progressive mind did not think in terms of the types of government actions common in more recent times. Rather, Kellor stated the policies which she believed would promote assimilation and sought to mobilize popular support in order to make them effective.

Peter Roberts also promoted assimilation as a solution to the difficulties faced by immigrants in coping with American society. He condemned the actions of those immigrant leaders whom he saw as oriented toward the policies of their native countries rather than the United States (1913, p. 84). His target was a composite of the padrone, labor-gang boss, company storekeeper, saloon keeper, and money lender! Of course, anyone who had a financial stake in preserving ignorance of American customs among the immigrants was a natural target of the Progressive reformer, but Roberts went beyond merely pecuniary motives. He saw the "un-American leader" as a bar to the assimilation of his followers; hence his concern that organizations of the foreign-born should be under the direction of leaders committed to the principles of Americanism, that is to say, assimilation (1920, p. 147). Roberts demonstrated the influence of the ideals of Progressive reform on the Americanization movement. As a true reformer, he believed that, given the proper motivation, education could lead gradually to fundamental change. Roberts saw the immigrants as unsuited to American industrial society in their present state. However, he was not willing to forget about them or to exclude them. Rather, he saw them as "plastic and capable of being molded into the standards of American manhood" (1913, p. 95). Assimilation would not be easy or quick, but it could be accomplished.

A quite different approach to assimilation was taken by Jane Addams and Grace Abbott. They saw it as a social process that operated independently of the efforts of adult educators and settlement workers to further or to hinder it. Furthermore, it was not seen as completely desirable; the growing generation gap between adult immigrants and their native-born children was viewed as a contributory element to the incidence of juvenile delinquency in immigrant communities. Balanced against the negative aspect of assimilation was the desire of settlement workers to help immigrants adapt to life in an industrial society. This called for active intervention on the part of settlement workers in their role as adult educators. Their goal was the restoration of the traditional family structure as a bridge over the temporary dislocations caused by life in the United States. This would enable the immigrant family as a cohesive unit to take the necessary steps in making the transition from rural-agricultural to urban-industrial life. The most positive aspect of assimilation was the incorporation of the immigrant community into the American political process, leading to social and political reform and a diminishing of the gap in living standards between foreign-born and native-born. Assimilation could mean equality, and Addams and Abbott were both of the opinion that eliminating cultural differences was less important than eliminating political ones.

Grace Abbott led an attack against the most basic form of prejudice against immigrants, the dislike of differences: "No one of us really sees any danger in the use of black bread instead of white, or in wearing a shawl instead of a hat" (1910, p. 381). She knew that the outward customs which children could easily disregard were valuable props in the structure of immigrant family life. She also knew that these customs would sooner or later give way and that educators had more important things to teach, one of them being the principles of citizenship and the "political machinery by which we attempt to put into practice our republican principles" (1910, p. 379). As a good Progressive, Abbott shared the belief that government action motivated by an enlightened citizenry could provide solutions to the problems of uncontrolled economic development. She expected citizenship education for immigrants to expand the Progressive constituency by creating an electorate capable of taking a disinterested view of political issues: "With the immigrant properly initiated into citizenship, we should be able to trust our good government organization to see that a non-partisan statement of the issues reaches him before an election" (1910, p. 383). Abbott saved her strongest condemnation for those who would attempt to distort this process. She decried the overemphasis on linguistic unity and the "coercive and vindictive" activities associated with the Americanization movement in at least some places (1920, p.3). She did not want the extremist wing of the Americanization movement to set up a superficial ideal of the American, one based on clothing, food, and manners instead of one based on her ideal of Progressive reform.

Perhaps the most ambiguous and uncertain attitude toward assimilation was displayed by Jane Addams. She shared Abbott's belief that it was an inevitable process, but her awareness of the history and culture of the homelands of the immigrants caused more than a tinge of regret when she saw immigrants exchange ideals and values built on centuries of tradition for a crude and superficial materialism. Addams (1910) felt that too many immigrants shared the American admiration of wealth regardless of how it was obtained; "This tendency upon the part of older immigrants to lose the amenities of European life without sharing those of America has often been deplored" (p. 171). She knew that readjustments had to be made, particularly since immigrant parents faced the necessity of raising children who rapidly became Americanized, at least as far as language, dress, and manners. What she sought was a kind of modus vivendi between the modernism of the young and the traditionalism of the old, "to preserve and keep whatever of value their past life contained and to bring them in contact with a better type of Americans" (p. 169).

The lessons of history for the present must be drawn from the context of historical events themselves. It is not possible to judge the past without asking how the standards of judgement have been arrived at. Frances Kellor has few admirers today, but that is because it is no longer possible to draw a distinction between the force of public opinion and the force of government action with respect to the treatment of minorities. Was Kellor naive to believe that immigrants were free to decide whether or not to participate in Americanization programs when their jobs were on the line? This is a relevant issue today when we consider issues surrounding the mandatory schooling of adults. Perhaps modern zealots of adult education will commit the same errors. Unlike Kellor who was primarily a public-relations expert, Peter Roberts was an educator who made a major contribution to the methodology of the teaching of conversational English with his lessons drawn from the everyday lives of adults. In addition, Roberts was a keen observer of the living conditions of immigrants and of their isolation from the mainstream of American life. To observe a problem is by no means to solve it, and Roberts was certainly overly optimistic in his expectations of the effects of learning English on the overall living conditions of immigrants. Although schooling has been given increased responsibilities, education is not a panacea when political action is required.

A useful corrective to Roberts can be found in the work of Addams and Abbott. They knew that family structure, living conditions, economic exploitation, and feelings of powerlessness were all elements that influenced the educational needs of adult immigrants and that education was only one element of a complex response to a major social problem. Furthermore, they attempted to mobilize the immigrant community in order to challenge the prejudices and preconceptions of the wider community. In part this was a pragmatic decision; the immigrant community would be unable to obtain a response to the problems it faced unless it could organize and mobilize itself in such a way as to participate in the political process. For Addams and Abbott, assimilation meant acceptance by the immigrants of their new identity as Americans, including the acknowledgment of the common values held by all immigrant groups. Even Jane Addam's romantic attachment to classical Greek and Roman culture was mainly a device to improve the sense of self-worth of those groups. This is an approach to the education of adult immigrants that remains valid; it is based on the integration of immigrants into the political and economic aspects of American society and the preservation of the sense of self-worth and self-identity which derives from their own cultural traditions.

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ASSESSMENT CENTERS AND ADULT LEARNERS: FACILITATING POST-ASSESSMENT DEVELOPMENT

David R. MacDonald
Manager, Program Development
STEELCASE, INC.
Grand Rapids, Michigan 49501

Abstract

The purpose of the study was to assist organizations using the assessment center method to increase the number of individuals having high levels of requisite skills and qualities to fill supervisory and managerial positions by identifying factors which influenced assessees' extents of follow-up on post-assessment center developmental recommendations.

The study examined 22 factors which were expected to have some bearing on the degree to which assessment center participants followed up on post-assessment center developmental recommendations. Data were gathered from 299 participants through a questionnaire and through audits of existing assessment center files. The dependent variable, extent of follow-up on post-assessment center developmental recommendations, was measured by calculating the mean of individual ratings of three trained assessors using a 1 to 5 scale of participants' descriptions of post-assessment follow-up on developmental recommendations and then compared to each factor using a loglinear model and chi-square test statistic to measure the degrees of association.

Of the nine factors seen as significant, three are not controllable by the corporation or the assessment center (age, level of formal education, desire to attend the assessment center), five evolve following participation of which only two can be influenced by the corporation (support from the organization, support from the supervisor/manager), and one can be influenced by the assessment center administrator (logicalness of recommendations).

ASSESSMENT CENTERS AND ADULT LEARNERS: FACILITATING POST-ASSESSMENT DEVELOPMENT

The selection and development of management personnel is crucial to most organizations. Managerial and supervisory personnel with appropriate competence are generally unavailable to the same extent as personnel for the more routine production or service jobs. A good deal of time and money is spent by organizations to locate and develop capable management personnel.

The literature is replete with studies relating to supervisory and management selection, development, succession planning, and related topics. Such publications as *Training and Development Journal*, *Personnel Journal*, *Academy of Management Review*, and *Personnel Administrator* are common sources of articles on the relative shortage of competent management personnel.

The assessment center method is one method by which organizations locate and develop employees to fill supervisory and managerial positions (Adler, 1978; Byham, 1979; Cohen, 1974; Kemmer, 1982). Perhaps because of its success, the assessment center method had been dissected for analysis by a great many researchers representing several major fields of study. According to George C. Thornton III and William C. Byham (1982),

> There is...a lesson to be learned from the high professional standards evidenced by assessment center proponents. *The assessment center method has been subjected to more research and professional scrutiny than any other personnel practice*. Because of high quality research and generally positive results, the development of standards for assessment center operations, and widespread self-monitoring to ensure compliance with proven practices, there are good prospects for continued validity of the method. (p. 391 - emphasis added)

This study examined the effect of the assessment center and other pre- and post-assessment aspects on employees' levels of follow-up on assessment center developmental recommendations. The study research questions were:

General Question -- "What factors influence the extent to which an individual follows up on developmental recommendations made following his/her participation in an assessment center?"

> **Specific Question #1** -- "To what degree are pre-assessment factors related to the extent to which an individual follows up on post-assessment center developmental recommendations?"

> **Specific Question #2** -- "To what degree are factors associated with the assessment center and feedback process related to the extent to which an individual follows up on post-assessment center developmental recommendations?"

> **Specific Question #3** -- "To what degree are post-assessment factors related to the extent to which an individual follows up on post-assessment center developmental recommendations?"

The study, which concluded in 1986, involved participants in an assessment center implemented by a large manufacturing organization to select and develop individuals for the position of first-line supervisor ("foreman") in the manufacturing function. Of the 352 individuals who had been assessed, 335 were still accessible for the study; each of the 335 subjects was mailed a 13-item questionnaire asking for perceptions of various parts of the assessment center experience. A total of 300 (89.6%) of the population returned completed questionnaires of which all but one were useable. The data gathered, along with data in existing assessment center files, were correlated with the dependent variable (ratings of post-assessment follow-up on developmental recommendations) using a loglinear model and chi-square test statistic.

Of the 22 factors examined (See Figure 1), nine had a significant relationship to the dependent variable, the extent to which an individual follows up on post-assessment center developmental recommendations. Three of the significant factors were factors not controlled by the corporation or the assessment center (age, formal education, desire to attend the assessment center). Five of the significant factors are those that evolve following assessment center participation of which only two can be influenced by the corporation (support from the organization, support from the supervisor/manager). Only one factor was found to be controllable by the assessment center administrator (logicalness of recommendations).

The assessment center method has obvious importance for an organization; however, the method also has considerable potential as a learning vehicle for an employee. A major conclusion of the study is that a significant factors were all of a facilitating nature, i.e., low levels of post-assessment development were

Figure 1.

Factors Examined and Their Significance

Pre-assessment Factors	Probability
a. Age at assessment	.0418*
b. Seniority at assessment	.4239
c. Formal education level	.0160*
d. Job grade (organizational level) at assessment	.6383
e. Sex	.9906
f. Desire to attend the assessment center	.0186*
g. Desire for the target job	.1453
During-assessment Factors	
a. Rating of overall potential to succeed in target job	.0805
b. Realism of assessment exercises	.5887
c. Acceptability of time delay to feedback	.1186
d. Sensitivity of individual delivering feedback	.4853
e. Appropriateness of time spent delivering and discussing feedback	.3157
f. Credibility of individual delivering feedback	.3706
g. Relevance of feedback to job dimensions	.4598
h. Logicalness of recommendations	.0087*
Post-assessment Factors	
a. Perceived support from the organization	.0001*
b. Perceived support from the supervisor/manager	.0011*
c. Perceived support from co-workers	.3488
d. Perceived support from family members	.0105*
e. Perceived support from friends	.2255
f. Likelihood of achieving target job	.0001
g. Post-assessment desire for target job	.0081*

*Significant factor.

associated with all levels of the factors while high levels of post-assessment development were only seen with high levels of the factors. The exception to this is the factor of "Age at Assessment" which was, as anticipated, inversely related to the dependent variable.

It is recommended that organizations wishing to help their employees learn to facilitate the process by: (a) offering financial and other organizational support, e.g., a tuition assistance program coupled with guidelines for managers to follow in making learning opportunities available on and off the job, (b) insuring that the developmental recommendations yielded by the assessment center and discussed with the participant be logically tied to the skills and qualities needing improvement and by clarifying the links with the assessee, and (c) making information available to participants prior to their assessment regarding such things as the origin of the assessment center process, the general design of the actual assessment center and how results are used.

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Conceptualizing an Environmental Scanning Process for Continuing Education Organizations

by

Larry G. Martin, Associate Professor
Department of Administrative Leadership
University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee
P.O. Box 413
Milwaukee, WI 53201

Abstract

The conditions and situational contexts in which many continuing education organizations operate (e.g., dynamic environments, resource dependency and insecurity, and the use of informal approaches to needs assessment) suggest they can benefit greatly from the implementation of a formal system of environmental scanning. A five-step process is proposed for analyzing external environments, and a crisis prevention analysis model is presented to assess the internal environments of both continuing education organizations and their parent agencies.

Conceptualizing an Environmental Scanning Process for Continuing Education Organizations

Introduction

The external and internal environments of most continuing education organizations are currently being affected by a myriad of social and economic transformations, e.g., technological advances, social interventions, socio-cultural reactions and socio-structural changes (Martin, 1986), that can portend both problems and opportunities. As open systems which receive the resources needed for development from the external environments in which they interact, the growth of continuing education organizations is primarily contingent on their abilities to: obtain inputs from the environment (e.g., money, clients, information, staff, facilities, and instructional material); organize and process these inputs; and produce outputs in the form of educated adult clients (Beder, 1978).

Although continuing education organizations cannot control the social and economic transformations which impact on their service delivery capacities, they can establish and implement a formal environmental scanning system. Such a system, could be designed to identify and forecast critical emerging issues, events, or trends (both external and internal to the organization) and their interrelationships which enable the development of images of possible future environments within which the organization may function.

The Need for An Environmental Scanning System

The conditions and situational contexts in which many continuing education organizations operate, suggest they can benefit greatly from the implementation of a formal system of environmental scanning.

Dynamic Environments

Many continuing education organizations exist in dynamic environments. In such environments, new educational pressures continuously create new educational needs. As new programs are developed to meet these needs, more and different resources are required, and new sources of resource supply must be found. Also, the stability of an environment affects competition and cooperation (Beder, 1978). In stable environments there is a tendency for organizations to achieve domain consensus, whereas, in dynamic environments organizational domains shift in reaction to environmental pressures, and domain conflict replaces domain consensus.

Resource Dependency and Resource Insecurity

The development of adult education agencies is constrained by two important factors: resource dependency and resource insecurity (Beder, 1978). Both factors must be overcome before substantial development can occur. Nearly all adult education organizations are actually subunits of organizations for whom adult education is a complementary and subordinate function rather than the predominate one. In times of organizational expansion, additional resources are generally allocated to predominate functions, and in times of organizational retraction complementary functions are the first to experience a reduction in resources.

Use of Informal Approaches to Needs Assessment

Many administrators of continuing education organizations rely on informal approaches to collecting and analyzing data concerning the external environment. For example, in a national study of university-based continuing professional education in five fields, Knox (1982) found that: informal communications were used with primary clientele groups for both needs assessment and marketing; informal contact with members of professional associations were primary sources of ideas about potential CPE activities; planning committees were used sparingly; and the use of reaction forms at the conclusion of CPE activities was fairly wide-spread.

Scanning the External and Internal Environments

Morrison (1987) defined environmental scanning as the systematic collection of external information in order to (1) lessen the randomness of information flowing into the organization and (2) provide early warnings for managers of changing external conditions. He suggests an environmental scanning system has four objectives:

1. detecting scientific, technical, economic, social, and political interactions and other elements important to the organization.
2. defining the potential threats, opportunities, or potential changes for the organization implied by those events.
3. promoting a future orientation in management and staff.
4. alerting management and staff to trends which are converging, diverging, speeding up, slowing down, or interacting.

A System for Scanning the External Environment

The process for scanning the external environment, suggested by Morrison (1987) has been modified into a five-step process for analyzing the external environments of continuing education organizations.

Committee Development

An individual should be appointed to lead a sub-committee of volunteer scanners (i.e., staff or advisory committee members) who already meet at a regularly scheduled time and place for an existing meeting (e.g., a staff meeting). The chair would assign information sources to each scanner and would be responsible for collecting and filing scanning abstracts. The sub-committee would use the occasion of their regular meetings to sort, sift and evaluate the significance of the abstracts. Each meeting would end with additions to the trend or event collection and perhaps with updated information on trends and events already in the collection.

Taxonomy Development

The trends and events identified in the initial sub-committee meeting may be used to develop a rough draft of a scanning taxonomy. This taxonomy should allow every possible item resulting from the scanning process to be classified. For example, Morrison (1987) notes that the United Way environmental scanning taxonomy has a file code (e.g., S-1, S-2, etc), a corresponding file name (e.g., Population Size/Composition, Population Migration/Mobility, etc.) and a category for related subjects (e.g., U.S. Population Growth/Size, Aging Population, or, Regional Migration, Rural/Urban Movement, etc.). An electronic filing system should be utilized to facilitate storage, review, referral and updating of abstracts.

Identification of Literature Sources and Data Bases

The chairperson and the committee should identify, list, and prioritize literature sources and data bases that regularly include information vital to the continuing education organization. This effort should seek to develop a diverse list of sources which include major newspapers, magazines, journals, TV and radio programs, and conferences covering a variety of areas (e.g., social/demographics, technology, economics, politics, etc.). Scanners should be assigned specific materials for regular review and analysis.

Training in the Preparation and Reporting of Abstracts

Scanners should be provided orientation and training in scanning and reporting information from their assigned information sources via abstracts. Morrison (1987) suggests the abstracts should be written in three sections: a one-half page (single-spaced type) summary of the facts discussed in the information source; an implications section listing emerging issues suggested by the information source, a description of future events resulting from trends, and/or an identification of stakeholders; and speculation about the item's potential for affecting other facets of the social economic environment and/or the continuing education organization.

Sub-Committee Meetings

The scanning sub-committee should meet on an established schedule to process the new abstracts. In preparation for this meeting the chair should receive the abstracts in advance and segregate them according to subject area. Each member of the sub-committee should be assigned a particular packet of abstracts to review in detail. All members should read the entire selection of abstracts received, but should come to the meeting with a new list of trends and potential issues derived from those abstracts in their packet. They should examine how these trends and issues relate to or conflict with other trend areas identified previously. The end result of this meeting should be a list and brief description of the trends, possible events, and emerging issues that either: appear important to monitor; require an immediate response; or require greater in-depth analysis by the continuing education organization.

Scanning the Internal Environment

The immediate environment of continuing education organizations includes both the environment of the parent agency and the internal environment of the continuing education organization. The parent agency often develops a framework of rules, regulations, and goals, within which the continuing education organization must operate. Within the immediate environment, the continuing education organization's financial situation, history, staff, and leadership contribute to its ability to manage change.

Hoverland et al. (1986) suggest a Crisis Prevention Analysis (CPA) model that can be adapted for use by continuing education organizations to assess the perceptions of their sub-unit administrators toward both the core areas of the continuing education organization and related areas in the parent agency. The model was designed to force administrators to go through the process of critically looking at various aspects of the organization's operations. It provides a focus and structure for managers to analyze the strengths and weaknesses of the four major areas of most institutions which include Fiscal, Faculty and Staff (i.e., Personnel), Support Functions, and Goals and Attitudes. Each element of each area (category) assessed should be rated on a four point scale. The ratings of Inadequate, Poor, Satisfactory, and Good, would be assigned values of 1,2,3,4, respectively. In implementing the model, the authors suggest more than one administrator independently score the inventory and then make comparisons. Using more than one administrator should reduce the bias of the appraisal and also highlight administrators' differing perceptions.

Originally designed to assess various types and sizes of postsecondary institutions, the model appears to be adaptable, in its rudimentary form, to continuing education organizations within other types of academic and nonacademic institutions. The elements of the four categories discussed in the CPA model have been modified by this author, to compliment its use in continuing education organizations.

Fiscal

The Fiscal category is concerned primarily with revenue sources and elements that contribute to generating income. It consists of six elements: Enrollment--changes in enrollment patterns (e.g., the number or types of students served by different departments), and potential populations; Price--fee schedule changes, fee as a percent of discretionary income; Product--subject matter offering, course format, instructor quality, academic level, evaluation techniques employed, classroom facilities utilized, locations of offerings, times of offerings; Promotion--Amount spent as a percentage of total budget, and the effect on total enrollment; Capital budget--expenditure changes; and Budget maintenance--budget change, percent of total agency budget, margin as percent of total budget.

Faculty and Staff

The Faculty and Staff category is concerned with personnel matters, and includes seven elements: Benefits--Changes in benefit package and instructional support; Salaries--Salary changes, comparability with other educational institutions; Personnel turnover--Percent of total personnel (by faculty and staff and by department); Collective bargaining--Potential for unionization or effects of collective bargaining; Temporary, part-time, and ad hoc faculty--Percent of total faculty (by department/program and by discipline); Student-faculty ratios--By discipline and department/program; Attitudes--Interviews, staff meeting discussions.

Support Functions

The Support Functions category includes those services provided by the parent agency and/or the continuing education organization which are vital to the maintenance of profit centers. It consists of seven elements: Library--Changes in holdings and hours of operation; Business office--Financial (accounting) services, cost control and reporting, purchasing analysis; Registration office--processing of student registrations, student records; Program processing--room assignments, course and teacher approval; Reprographics--printing services; Computer center--computer services; Community relations--Personnel participation in community organization and projects.

Goals and Attitudes

The Goals and Attitudes category focuses on strategic planning as an essential endeavor for an academic institution. It has four elements: Strategic planning--How comprehensive, how developed, how implemented; Innovation--Climate for innovation, rate of implementation of new ideas; Image appraisal--Surveys, interaction with external groups and individuals; Organizational attitude--appraisals by department chairs, discussions in staff meetings.

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Continuing Social and Economic Injustice:

The Adult Education Placebo

Charles R. Oaklief
Associate Professor
College of Education
Kansas State University

Abstract

Continuing Social and Economic Injustice: The Adult Education Placebo

The continuance of social and cultural control into adulthood through the educational process is a logical stepping stone for hegemony; a transition from pedagogy to andragogy. It is the position of this paper that the critique of adult education as a continuance of social and economic injustice and inequality as suggested by Jones (1984) is not totally justified in that the level of application in adult education is directed to the programs of adult basic education which, in the United States, represent a small percentage of organized adult education and even smaller percentages of the number of adults engaged in meaningful lifelong learning. The suggestion of adult education as being the reproduction and continuation of hegemony from the formal schooling process is not justifiably transferable to the total field of adult education by a very limited reference to those adult education programs and delivery systems wherein the broad based economic, cultural, and social forces are more heavily synthesized.

The paper argues the case for protection of those theories and practices long associated with adult education in America which influence the continuing development of collective and individual freedoms, the preservation of social justice and economic opportunity for the citizenry.

Continuing Social and Economic Injustice: The Adult Education Placebo

The overall objective of this paper is to explore those factors at work in selected areas of American adult education which affect a protective buffer from traditional hegemony forces acting cohortly in the schooling process and continuing the injustice and inequalities of the social/economic system throughout the adult life. Hegemony, as defined by Apple (1979), is the control of culture and meaning as it relates to the reproduction of our socioeconomic order.

Americans spend an average of 12.9 years in the process of formal schooling; however, upper and middle class members of our society achieve a much higher than average level of formal schooling. The formal educational process represents a significant period of time during the formative and developmental years for most individuals.

According to Apple (1979), Bernstein (1975), and Young (1971), this period is one of extensive structuring of knowledge and cultural control in a society. The subtle process, identified as hegemony (Apple, 1979), affects the protection and continuance of the economically and socially elite in our society and perpetuates social and economic injustice and inequality. The further reproduction and establishment of inequality in the economic sector of our society becomes an agenda of the educational process (Bowles and Gintes, 1976).

The continuance of social and cultural control into adulthood through the educational process is a logical stepping stone for hegemony; a transition from pedagogy to andragogy. It is the position of this paper that Jones' (1984) critique of adult education as a continuance of social and economic injustice and inequality from schooling through adult education is not totally justified because the level of application in his critique is directed to the programs of adult basic education which, in the United States, represent a small percentage of organized adult education and an even smaller percentage of the number of adults engaged in meaningful lifelong learning.

The suggestion that adult education is the reproduction and continuation of hegemony from the formal schooling process is not justifiably transferable to the total field of adult education by a very limited reference to those adult education programs and delivery systems wherein the broad based economic, cultural, and social forces are more heavily synthesized.

This paper argues the case for protection of those theories and practices long associated with adult education in America which influence the continuing development of collective and individual freedoms, the preservation of social justice and economic opportunity for the citizenry.

The mid 1980's finds the organizational forms of major educational institutions widely confronted with reorganization and reconstruction efforts which are touted as the harbinger of better days. This situation is not unlike the state of "hegemonic crisis" as described by Livingstone (1987) in which the subordinate groups' consent to the acknowledged social order weakens as evidenced by increasing contention, declining benefits, and repressive forces.

Although complete resolution of the current problems will not likely be made by the formation of new dominant groups, such as the adult education or lifelong learning movements of the new establishment, renewal will surely be enhanced by the growth and strength of established adult education programs and organizations.

The current social/economic state-of-the-art represented by ideological uncertainty, economic lethargy, and increasing political controversy calls for an especially benevolent and responsive educational system to socialize youth and adults alike for greater personal involvement in shaping their own personal destiny and reconstitution of the social order as suggested by Livingston (1987).

The supra organizational concept of all social institutions as viable educational providers, which is espoused in the concept of lifelong learning (UNESCO, 1977), may become a reality sooner than the skeptics believe. This possibility is due in part to the shear magnitude of social reconstruction as a moot reality for the existing system of organized schooling in the United States.

The central focus of social and economic reform rests in the hegemonic process. In its basic format, hegemony is an environment in which one group or organization has an established leadership control over others. According to Ashendon, Cornell, and Dorsett (1987) it is a situation "...where its common purposes and meanings prevail where potentially competing methods and ideologies are disorganized, subordinated or incorporated" (p.253). As suggested by Apple and Weis (1983), in congruence with the maintenance of ideological hegemony (Gramsci, 1971), "...ideology from the individual point of view which is relative to consciousness and meaning are constituted by ideological practices that are independent of individual human subjects and that actually produce subjectivity. Thus, ideology is a practice producing subjects" (p.17).

Hegemony refers to an organized assemblage of meaning and practices, the central, effective and dominant system of meanings, values and actions which are represented in our daily lives. It needs to be understood in a different light than opinion or manipulation. The process is not simply the domination of cultural resources but involves the processing of knowledge as well wherein schools act as vehicles of selective tradition and of cultural incorporation (Apple, 1979).

The organized and transmitted symbolic resources in the schooling environment relative to ideological terms becomes the cultural capital of specific groups or organizations. The power inherent in this process then functions to recreate relations of domination and subordination by positioning subjects within larger ideological relationships.

The rationale for the buffering of adult education learning environments from the domination of typical hegemonic forces in modern society includes the following factors:

1. The observed educational methods, rituals, and procedures of providers of educational opportunities for adults are more diffuse and organizationally independent than those found in the schooling of youth.
2. The affect of sharing mutual observations, beliefs, and knowledge from life experiences of learners constitutes a primary learning resource in adult education and facilitates a basis for individual and collective thinking which provides a buffer from dominant and controlling circumstances of organized education processes.
3. The assumption is that adults as learners are primarily consumers and appliers of practical information rather than social and economic transactors. In this scenario, adults tend to be peripheral to the whole educational enterprise, as individuals or groups to be served.
4. The knowledge to be learned, the learning environments, and the education of adults is situated within the actual social, economic, and cultural conditions of the adult environment. This is not the case in schooling and is also less obvious in cases of mandatory adult and continuing education. The same is suggested for adult education in human resource development (Nadler, 1984) where strong organizational constraints and influence permeates the training and education process.
5. The knowledge to be learned, in most adult education programs, is problematic to the learners' adult situation and individual development needs. In addition, the geographic location for educational programs take into account the convenience of learners and provides for a broad variety of home and community facilities as suggested by Cross and McCarten, (1984).

This autonomy provided by specific adult education characteristics, although not complete in any manner, provides a buffer from traditional hegemonic forces long associated with organized schooling.

Implications for Adult Education

Educators and facilitators of adults as learners can support educative learning environments by providing for the following situations. Adult educators need:

1. To critically examine the who, why, and how of the collective social and economic culture as presented through adult education processes in addition to the efficiency related to questions of how adults as learners acquire more knowledge.
2. To enhance the cultural status of society through more equal dissemination of knowledge among social and economic classes, occupational groups, different age groups, and different power groups.
3. To compensate for social inequalities through the equalization of educational opportunity and enhancement of life chances.
4. To expand upon the facilitator role and resource model of the adult educator to include the organismic intellectual model (Knowles, 1973) along with both the cognizance and reflective action behavior which is joined against the subtle working of hegemony in adult education programs and organizations.
5. To promote the inclination and ability for critical inquiry of economic and social overtones which threaten ethical rationality, personal power, and involvement in seeking personal and societal development.

In addition to the proceeding factors, an area of great importance in the successful education of adults is the continuing preparation of adults as a learners which is a process involving rekindling the personal acclimation for learning prior to and during the adults involvement in a learning project. This is also important for those not having had successful learning experiences as youth and appears to act in much the same way that kindergarten children are acclimated to their classroom environment by being introduced to their elementary school work as school pupils in kindergarten (Apple, 1979).

Even with the provision of the above factors, financial support for adult education has not been strongly supported nationally. This situation raises the question of top government and organizational levels in the United States not having arrived at traditional levels of control found in existing school systems. The present power has also not yet devised the appropriate structure, nor the possible focus and mechanism for the furtherance of its existing control over education of those who have left the formal system or are into part of the formal system and now wish to begin or continue their learning and development. Is there too much at risk for existing economic, social, and cultural structure to maintain such control by power groups?

The nature of adult education and learning as set forth by such writers as Lindeman (1926), Knowles (1980), and Houle (1984) provides for some degree of justice in social life by politicization of the teacher as a facilitator and as a co-learner. This process is also enhanced by the utilization of the learner's real life experiences as a resource for learning, by the involvement of adult learners in the process of the learning, and by the interactive environment established through dialogue representative of quality adult education.

It is the opinion of this writer that social selection, placement, and issues not limited to the direct concern of sociologists and economists as prescribed by Wilson (1975) should be of primary focus in the furtherance of adult education and lifelong learning but that such social and economic arrangements are crucial to the understanding of educators of youth as well as adults in the continuing development of the ideologies of equality and human development. The current theories and practices related to adult education and learning are not in fact placebos rendering traditional hegemony forces ineffective but are truly at the core of maintaining current ideological value systems associated with the rapidly developing field of adult education.

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"Continuing Education for Extension Home Economists"

Doris Brickman Richardson
Program Leader
Extension Home Economics
103 Human Ecology Building
Michigan State University
East Lansing, MI 48824-1030

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to explore the learning activities which Michigan Cooperative Extension Services Extension Home Economists use for the acquisition of their professional skills. The primary focus was to investigate the relationship of both self-directed learning and formal learning to the acquisition of their professional skills and knowledge. A secondary, but also important focus was to describe the types of learning which are preferred by the Extension Home Economists and also the reasons for these preferences.

The sample of 12 subjects was selected from a population of 44 Extension Home Economists who met the criteria of the study. They were interviewed and asked to respond to four areas of inquiry: (1) types of learning currently utilized; (2) preferences for learning professional skills; (3) relationships between skill area and type of preferred learning; and (4) types of support identified as important for future learning. The interview data were subjected to multiple comparative analyses consistent with grounded theory methodology.

The findings of this study resulted in four conclusions.

First, if in fact, Extension Home Economists are learning 75 percent of their professional skills in a self-directed manner, resource agencies that are attempting to serve their learning needs should carefully reexamine their role and look for ways to assist them in their learning and at the same time, allow them to retain this self-directedness. Second, if Extension Home Economists prefer to learn certain skills in a specific manner, training through a variety of methods as well as in a variety of topics must be offered. Third, formalized training is not an efficient use of time and money as a learning vehicle for all the professional skills of this population. Fourth, Extension Home Economists are capable of defining the support that is necessary for their future learning needs and should be asked for their input in its planning and execution.

"Continuing Education for Extension Home Economics"

INTRODUCTION

Extension Home Economists, like other adult learners, utilize a variety of educational resources to meet their learning needs. How these Extension Home Economists acquire new professional knowledge after completion of their formal training and how this learning may be better encouraged and facilitated by Michigan State University are major concerns of the Michigan Cooperative Extension Service.

The purpose of this study is to explore the learning activities of Extension Home Economists. The primary focus is investigating the relationship of both self-directed learning and formal learning to the acquisition of their professional skills and knowledge. A secondary, but also important focus is to describe the types of learning which are preferred by the Extension Home Economists and also the reasons for these preferences.

This study includes four broad areas of inquiry. They are:

1. What types of learning do Extension Home Economists currently utilize to acquire the skills which are required in their professional work?
2. How do Extension Home Economists prefer to learn their professional skills?
3. Is there a relationship between the skill area and the type of learning preferred?
4. What types of support do Extension Home Economists identify as important for their learning?

PROCEDURES

The methodology for this study is based on the grounded theory methodology which was used and described by Glaser and Strauss (1967) and Glaser (1978). In this approach, the analyst codes each incident of the data into categories, compares codes, recodes, integrates categories, reduces categories and generates a theory that is derived from data, rather than being deduced from an existing body of theory. This type of analysis is especially useful when concept and hypothesis development is desired. The end product of a study using this approach is a set of hypotheses that account for most of the behavior noted in the relevant areas of study.

Grounded theory is especially suited for generating descriptive hypotheses. It is also useful for studying substantive areas such as the learning activities of a group of Extension Home Economists, as very little prior research has been done on the relationship of both self-directed and formal learning to the acquisition of their professional skills.

The problem area for this study of actual and preferred learning activities of Extension Home Economists was identified through extensive reading in the area of adult learning. Specifically, this study includes four broad areas of inquiry.

The first area of inquiry deals with the types of learning which Extension Home Economists currently utilize to acquire the skills which are required in their professional work. Extension Home Economists are expected to perform a wide variety of skills, ranging from food preservation, to stress management, to computer programming. Some Extension Home Economists may possess these skills when they enter the profession, but many of them must acquire them after they join the Extension Service. This question seeks to discover the types of learning activities which are used by Extension Home Economists in order to facilitate the acquisition of their professional skills.

How Extension Home Economists prefer to learn their professional skills was the second area of inquiry of the study. This question was selected to discover if the currently utilized methods of learning are, in fact, the preferred methods of learning. Would an Extension Home Economist prefer to use different types of learning activities if they were available for her use?

The third area of inquiry concerns the possible relationship between the type of skill area and the preferred learning activity. This question was pursued because the literature suggests that some learning activities are more applicable to certain types of skills than are others. Extension Home Economists' professional skills range from knowledge of scientific nutrition facts to hands-on computer techniques. This area of inquiry asks whether or not there is such a relationship between skill area and preferred learning activity for Extension Home Economists.

What types of support do Extension Home Economists identify as important for their on-going professional learning? The literature of adult education describes an adult learner as one who, more than anyone else, has greater insight into his own capacities, preferred methods, goals, needs, pace and emotional blocks to learning (Tough, 1971). The question considered then, is what types of support do Extension Home Economists identify as important for their on-going acquisition of professional skills and knowledge.

Glaser and Strauss (1976) recommend selecting a population that seems to be the most likely group to provide data related to the problem areas. An obvious group to seek data for this study were Michigan Cooperative Extension Services' Extension Home Economists. This group is one which is continually acquiring professional skills and is likely to experience a variety of learning activities in this acquisition. The group is also well known and accessible to the researcher.

The subjects for this study were twelve Extension Home Economists. The population from which the subjects were selected was that of all county Extension Home Economists who are employed full-time to provide information and educational programs to the citizens of a county or counties in the content areas of home economics and related areas.

At the time of this study, 44 Extension Home Economists met these criteria. Twelve study participants were randomly selected from the population. Their names were simply placed in a container and drawn out one by one. They were assigned a number as they were drawn. Initially, 20 names were drawn and it was expected that some would be unable to participate. However, each of the first twelve agreed to participate and did, in fact, do so. The number 12 was chosen because it was a manageable number and seemed likely to be large enough to yield the desired data and to reach saturation.

Demographic information was collected from each of the Extension Home Economists who were included in the study. The remainder of the data was obtained from interviews with the twelve study participants.

Each interview lasted approximately one to four hours. All interviews were conducted by the researcher to insure that questions and interpretations of responses were as consistent as possible.

The interview format was a focused one but used open-ended questions. This type of interview allowed the interviewee to do most of the talking while the researcher listened, observed and recorded. This technique enabled the interviewer to learn more about the feelings and attitudes of the interviewee and was also less likely to lead the interviewee to respond in any preset, particular way, Borg and Gall (1979). Though it is impossible to assume the validity of factual data about past events obtained by an interview, this method does have the ability to probe into many areas so that the interviewer should be able to more clearly ascertain the reality of the situation, Weiss and Davis (1960).

No longer than 24 hours after each interview, a summary of the interview was written from notes and from memory. This summary also contained impressions about both the study participant's and the interviewer's behavior and attitudes, the date and time of the interview, a description of the environment, and all other related incidents.

At the same time, the data worksheets were completed from the interview notes and the interview summary. Because predetermined categories were not established in this type of research, the notes of the summaries, worksheets and tape recordings were divided according to the study's areas of inquiry. The data worksheets were used to find key words and phrases so that they might be managed for later analysis.

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

This study regarding the learning activities of Extension Home Economists for the acquisition of professional skills resulted in three major findings. The first finding is the fact that the types of learning which Extension Home Economists utilize depend upon their past experience, as well as the availability of learning choices. This study suggests that the current offering of learning activities for Extension Home Economists and their personal past experiences influence the ways in which Extension Home Economists are learning their necessary professional skills. The idea that a formalized inservice activity will meet the needs of all Extension Home Economists does not seem likely to meet with success. If an Extension Home Economist lacks personal experience in the subject matter area, she may require a very different learning activity than an Extension Home Economist who has been exposed to the information in the past. It is evident that even if an Extension Home Economist is willing to participate in the inservice training because of its availability, her willingness alone is insufficient to guarantee the mastery of the skill. An example of this is an Extension Home Economist who attends a food preservation workshop in which she simply observes someone else perform the skills. She may be very willing, and eager to learn but unless she has had hands-on experience in the past or has some in the future, she will find it virtually impossible to perform the task herself.

This study found that the formalized university sources of learning are highly utilized. Because of this, it would be of benefit to the Extension Home Economists if these offerings could be based upon their past experiences. This study points out that Extension Home Economists are capable of deciding exactly what they need to learn as professional skill. Tough (1971) noted that the typical adult learner is one who diagnoses his own needs, sets his own goals and chooses his own learning experiences. Extension Home Economists seem to fit the picture of "goal-oriented" learning as described by Houle (1961). According to him, "goal-oriented learners" use learning to gain specific objectives. Examples of such specific objectives could well be learning to preserve food or to operate computers.

The second finding deals with the fact that Extension Home Economists prefer to learn professional skills by a variety of methods, depending upon the type of skill needed. These preferences are often different from the ones actually utilized. Learning methods which are designed for specific skills are more likely to result in skill acquisitions. Extension Home Economists reported a preference for self-directed learning in order to acquire approximately seventy-five percent of their professional skills. Extension Home Economists also prefer hands-on training and early orientation for specific types of skills such as radio work and newsletter writing. Extension Home Economists prefer to plan a majority of their own learning and are requesting the time and opportunity to do so.

The last finding is that the requests for future learning support are practical and well defined by the Extension Home Economists and are considered necessary by them for personal, as well as professional, growth and development. This study states that a wide spectrum of learning support is deemed necessary by the Extension Home Economists. This support may range from a person being allowed time to share informally with another professional to being monetarily compensated for an advanced college degree. All types of requested supports were considered beneficial and some were described as being indispensable in order to continue to practice as professional Extension Home Economists.

The findings now become the basis for some conclusions that have significant implications for both Extension Home Economists and the Michigan Cooperative Extension Service.

The first conclusion is based upon the finding which describe the ways in which Extension Home Economists are learning seventy-five percent of their professional skills in a self-directed manner. Resource agencies that are attempting to serve the learning needs of the Extension Home Economists should carefully reexamine their role and look for ways in which they can assist them in their learning and, at the same time, allow them to retain this self-directedness; and not force them to become directed learners.

The data from this study also includes suggestions for doing this. Examples of these suggestions would be requests for lists of current books and resources, for time to interact with other Extension Home Economists, and for the continuation of Michigan State University resources.

A second conclusion is that if Extension Home Economists prefer to learn certain types of skills in a specific manner, resource agencies who are attempting to meet their needs should offer training through a variety of methods as well as in a variety of topics. It is not possible to teach all subject matter in one manner as Extension Home Economists are requesting that it be much more specific. Examples are the preferences for hands-on training for food preservation and radio, the use of audio and visual tapes for simple facts such as basic nutrition and money management and for group interaction for human development skills such as stress management and parenting. It is necessary to receive the input from Extension Home Economists in order to be sure the teaching method to be used is indeed the preferred and thus, the most efficient one.

A third conclusion is based on a potentially conflicting aspect of the data. This aspect is that while Extension Home Economists are attending an average of fifteen days of formalized training, they still attribute seventy-five percent of their learning of professional skills to self-directed learning activities. The conclusion is that, as a learning vehicle, formalized training does not always provide the most efficient use of time and money in enhancing the professional skills of this particular population.

A last conclusion states that if, as demonstrated in this study, Extension Home Economists are able to define the support that is necessary for their personal and professional growth and development, it is important to respond to their requests. The literature points out that adult learners are the best judge of their learning needs and the methods which will satisfy these goals. Therefore, once again, resource agencies for Extension Home Economists should ask them for their input and follow their suggestions whenever possible. An example is the fact that one hundred percent of the study participants requested training in the areas of personal development skills and group process skills. It is therefore important to provide this type of resource for them, or to inform them where such resources may be available.

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ABSTRACT

THE EFFECT OF INSTRUCTIONAL PRESENTATION ON STUDENT SATISFACTION AND PERFORMANCE AS DEMONSTRATED IN AN ELECTRONIC DISTANCE EDUCATIONAL (EDE) DELIVERY SYSTEM

BY

DR. R. Alan Seamons
Director of COM-NET Systems
Computer Center Bld. 201
Utah State University
Logan Utah, 84322-5020
(801) 750-2028

The purpose of this study was to gain insight into the emerging field of electronic distance education (EDE) so as to improve and enhance the delivery of educational programs utilizing EDE. The study was conducted at Utah State University, using an EDE-method (COM-NET) as the research setting. Thirty-seven instructors taught 45 courses over the COM-NET system from Fall quarter, 1985 through Summer quarter, 1986.

The design of this study was based upon simple correlation coefficient matrices and the subsequent prediction models of multiple regression analysis. Contextual data were gathered from a solicited instructor self-reporting instrument. The objective was to identify potential relationships between teaching styles and instructional utilities employed on student satisfaction and student performance EDE-based learning system. The Abstract/Random teaching style had an effect on student satisfaction. Discovery techniques had an effect on student performance. The Abstract/Random and the Abstract/Sequential teaching styles utilized abstract devices.

Instructors were generally enthusiastic about their COM-NET teaching experience. The need for improved on-campus administrative awareness and support in terms of released time and money were identified as measures to improve the system. Instructional flexibility was stressed as important. The COM-NET students performed as well as on-campus students, due in part to their maturity and experiences.

It was concluded that instructional presentations have a significant effect on student outcomes. Given the emerging EDE methods more study is necessary to determine precise instructional procedures which result in improved student performances when learning via an EDE system.

THE EFFECT OF INSTRUCTIONAL PRESENTATION ON STUDENT SATISFACTION AND PERFORMANCE AS DEMONSTRATED IN AN ELECTRONIC DISTANCE EDUCATIONAL (EDE) DELIVERY SYSTEM

Utah State University, the land grant institution for the state of Utah, began a search for cost effective Electronic Distance Educational (EDE) devices with which to alleviate the financial and faculty shortfalls experienced due to a 110% increase in off-campus credit enrollment since the 1979-80 academic year. In response to this need generated by the residents of rural Utah, the EDE system or COM-NET was developed and implemented at Utah State University in 1984. Initially located at seven existing continuing education centers which were established in the mid 60s, COM-NET has now grown to 17 outreach centers, including 3 in the State prison, resulting in 780 total enrollments quarterly.

Currently there are four degrees on the system, each with a two year cycle, ie Bachelors in Psychology, Bachelors in Business Administration, Masters of Education in Instructional Technology and a Masters in Family Life. The backbone of the network consists of two leased telephone circuits (audio/data) in a star configuration on which the following devices interact, (multiple usage of the lines is accomplished through switching):

1. 2 way audio - Darome public address system
2. 2 way hard copy - Cannon facsimile machines
3. 2 way writing boards - AT&T writing boards
4. 2 way video - Colorado Video slow scan
5. 2 way file services - IBM PC computers networked to library
6. System mobility - Westell Bridge/Mobile Units
7. System back up - Cassette taping of Audio/Data
8. Motion color video - VHS recorders

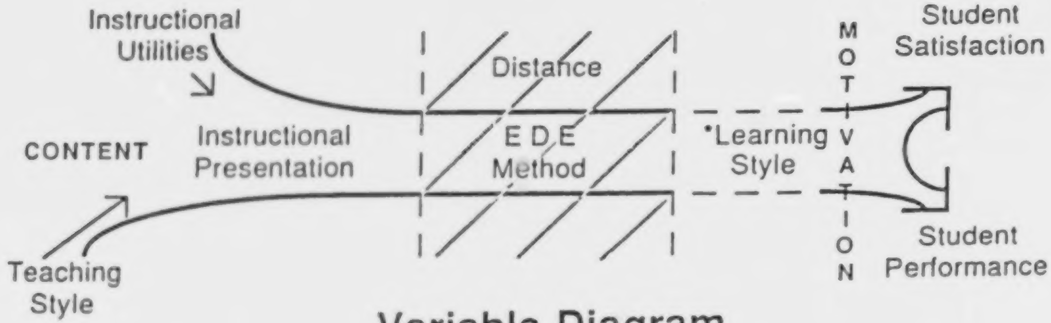
In order to bridge the gaps between instructor and students, key individuals and processes have been identified and established in order to guarantee the smooth functioning of the established devices. These key positions and functions are as follows:

1. CENTER DIRECTORS: liasons between the needs of the rural communities and the campus
2. COM-NET DIRECTOR: synthesizes the needs of the varying outreach centers and the needs of the University resulting in programming
3. TEACHING ASSISTANTS: they are the eyes and ears of the instructors during class, monitoring the needs of the students and communicating them to the instructor
4. INSTRUCTIONAL DESIGNER: adapts and modifies the existing courses and inservices those involved with the delivery

5. SYSTEM ENGINEER: guarantees the smooth functioning of the devices
6. SYSTEM MANAGER: oversees the logistical functions of credit course delivery
7. FACULTY: committed to the outreach concept and empathetic to the needs of the information poor in rural Utah

The objective of the study was to determine to what degree the varying teaching styles (Concrete/Sequential, Concrete/Random, Abstract/Sequential, Abstract/Random) in conjunction with the instructional utilities (Expository techniques, Discovery techniques Abstract devices, Concrete devices) employed in Electronic Distance Educational methods EDE), influenced student satisfaction and student performance. The design of this study was based upon simple correlation coefficient matrices and the subsequent prediction models of multiple regression analysis. Contextual data were gathered from a solicited instructor self-reporting instrument.

The objective was to identify potential relationships between teaching styles and instructional utilities employed on student satisfaction and student performance in an EDE-based learning system.



Variable Diagram

The teaching style data were gathered using the Gregorc Style Delineator (Gregorc, 1982). Instructional utilities data were gathered using the Instructional Utilities Inventory. Student satisfaction was ascertained by using the standard University Course Evaluation Form. Student performance was assessed by using the mean final grades of the 44 courses taught by the 37 instructors on the COM-NET System between Fall quarter 1985 and Summer quarter, 1986.

The following descriptive statistics emerged from the analysis of the courses taught. Of note was a mean student satisfaction score of 3.27 for all COM-NET courses studied as compared to a mean on-campus student satisfaction score is a measure of students' agreement with the statements, descriptive of quality courses, as stated on the standard USU course evaluation form (scale 0-4). A mean 3.04 grade point average (GPA) was earned by students who were in the COM-NET courses studied. During the same time period a mean GPA of 3.14 was earned by students in on-campus courses (Utah State University Office of Instructional Research, 1986).

The first hypothesis, that there was no significant relationship between teaching style employed during the given EDE course and student satisfaction with that course, was rejected. Abstract/Random teaching style was statistically significant at the .05 level with regard to the variable of student satisfaction, predicting 11.6 percent of the variability of student satisfaction. The Abstract/Random individual, as defined by Gregorc (1982), as one whose world is abstract and non-physical. They are most comfortable when they characterize themselves as spontaneous and adaptive to circumstances depending on the goal, plans, and objectives.

The second hypothesis, that there is no significant relationship between teaching style employed during a given EDE course and student performance in that course, was not rejected. The third hypothesis, that there is no significant relationship between instructional utilities employed during a given EDE course and student satisfaction with that course, was also not rejected.

The fourth hypothesis, that there is no significant relationship between instructional utilities employed during a given EDE course and student performance in that course, was rejected.
"Discovery technique" predicted 26.4 percent of the variability of "student performance" at the .001 level of significance. The discovery teaching approach is based on the philosophy wherein the learner is engaged in problem solving and solution-seeking activities thereby developing subsequent skills. The content of the course is viewed as a by-product of this problem solving skill development.

The fifth hypothesis, that there is no significant relationship between the teaching style and the instructional techniques employed in EDE methods, was rejected. The "Abstract/Random" teaching style predicted a significant portion of the variability of "discovery technique", explaining 12.7 percent at the .05 significance level. Faculty who used Abstract/Random teaching styles spontaneously dealt with, and adapted to, the environment using discovery techniques to encourage student involvement.

The sixth hypothesis, that there is no significant relationship between teaching style and the instructional devices employed in EDE methods, was rejected. The "Abstract/Sequential" teaching style predicted a significant portion of the variability of "abstract devices" explaining 17.5 percent at the .005 level of significance. Devices are communication channels which aid in the relaying of the experience between communicators. A major difference between the Abstract/Random individual as discussed previously and the Abstract/Sequential is the evidence of more structure in the information ordering process. Although still seeing their world as a very abstract, non-physical realm of thoughts and mental constructions, the ordering pattern in sequential individuals is represented by two-dimensional geometry. Through tree-like branching, starting with the common stem, the specific elements are sequentially linked to a base (Gregorc, 1986). The need for structure stimulated the planning and carefully considered utilization of devices prior to engaging in the learning experience while still maintaining the flexibility of the abstract perceptual style.

Instructors' comments and opinions were collected in written form. There were no negative comments toward the system in general. One of the major strengths identified was the ability to serve the informational needs of learners in remote locations without the instructor having to travel long distances. The COM-NET system challenged instructors and their comments suggested an appreciation for the opportunity to learn about the system. instructional insight and materials generated in the COM-NET experience have been utilized by many in on-campus classes. Instructors suggested that a second experience on COM-NET would result in better instructional presentation. Increased inservice education for instructors was proposed as a means to improve course adaptation and technique development to the available modes of COM-NET. Flexibility of instructional style was stressed as an important factor of COM-NET course success which facilitated spontaneous adaptation to the non-traditional nature of the system.

The major limitations of the experience as viewed by the instructors were not directed at the system. They focused on the lack of on-campus financial support given to the system. Significant modification of on-campus courses is necessary to adapt them to this method. To do so requires time and money. As a result of the lack of administrative support, instructors confessed to devoting less than desired amounts of preparation time.

Another major limitation identified was the lack of student participation in courses taught over COM-NET. The absence of motion pictures was also identified as a limitation of the system. The teaching assistants)TA) were considered principle strengths of the system, yet it was suggested that a closer interaction with the COM-NET office and center directors might improve course delivery. Materials distribution caused some problems for instructors and students. Students were described as being different from the on-campus students in a positive way. Comments regarding grades, suggested similarity with on-campus performance, with one exception, indicating lower student performance via COM-NET. In general, the instructors were appreciative of the students' willingness and motivation. The high student "non-completion" rate was a concern of a few instructors.

Of the devices which are used to form the COM-NET EDE method, the audio and the writing board appeared to be fundamentally essential from instructors' perspective. Comments suggested that methods of information delivery which are not based upon a two-way interactive model could not be education. The facsimile machines were a major element in the delivery of course work in EDE methods assuring the timely exchange of tests and assignments. It was suggested that color video was content specific and not significant for most courses.

The results of this study indicated that consideration be given to employing and implementing the following conclusions: a. Empirical as well as contextual data, suggested the importance of instructor flexibility and spontaneous adaptability. Instructors with abstract teaching styles utilize participation-oriented techniques and devices. b. The creation of a program manual is a major element of any EDE project. The timely exchange of tests and assignments is also a mandatory element. c. Instructional presentations for EDE projects require significant course redesign to meet the distinctive needs of the distance learner and the EDE system involved. Resources must be provided to aid instructors in course redesign and program annual development. The employment of trained instructional designers coupled with faculty incentives in the form of released time and honorarium must receive demonstrated administrative support.

The challenge of the future for EDE delivery becomes the challenge of the educational technologist who must first identify the subtleties and differences between the varying methods created by these new devices. They then identify, analyze, and test a multitude of compound variables inherent in EDE-delivery methods. The more well-publicized programs, i.e., British Open University, National University Consortium and Learn Alaska use teams of specialists comprised of content experts, delivery mode specialists, and instructional technologists to develop the basic course print package. EDE systems have grown beyond the placement of a camera on a lecturer or professor who simply addresses a student audience. The overall function of any interactive EDE system is to be cost efficient with regard to resources of time and money, while at the same time duplicating, as best as is possible, the learning experiences of on-campus courses. As instructor travel time is eliminated and instructional duplication minimized, many resources are thus saved. The misconception is believing that hardware alone provides an answer to educational efficiency. This study strongly refutes this misconception, both empirically as well as contextually.

Devices are a means of overcoming time and distance variables associated with EDE. Without an organizational infrastructure supporting both instructor and student, EDE may never succeeded as a method. Responses to needs, concerns, and problems must still be addressed through human ingenuity.

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IMPLICATIONS OF RECENT RESEARCH ABOUT TRENDS IN CORPORATE EDUCATION FOR HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT PRACTITIONERS

by

W. Franklin Spikes, III, Ed.D.

Associate Dean, School of Business Administration
and
Associate Professor of Business Administration

University of Misouri-St. Louis
8001 Natural Bridge Road
St. Louis, Missouri 63121

(314) 553-5887

ABSTRACT

Over the years, American corporations have spent billions of dollars to support employee-related training and development activities. As changes occur in society and as competition increases, new techologies and trends are emerging in the training and development field. This paper discusses some of the more important of these trends; examines several of the new types of business and educational partnerships and programming models that have emerged in the past several years, and finally offers several specific suggestions for action and research by human resource development professionals.

Implications of Recent Research About
Trends in Corporate Education
for
Human Resource Development Practitioners

INTRODUCTION

Over the years, American corporations have spent billions of dollars to support employee-related training and development activities. While specific data on trends in corporate training expenditures will be discussed later in this paper, it is sufficient to say that over time, expenditures have grown geometrically as have the number of enrollments in such programs. As technology changes, as competition in the marketplace increases, as new products and services are introduced, corporate leaders are viewing training and development as an important means to increase their organization's competitive position.

The existence of training and development functions of most corporations is, and obviously will continue to be justified in economic terms rather than on the inherent value of education in and of itself. Questions concerning return on investment (ROI), effects of training upon profitability, efficiency of time utilization and the like are regularly being raised today. In order to make the huge investment in training pay off, human resource development professionals are constantly seeking to employ new avenues to enhance their operation as well as ones which will yield a greater return on their employers investment in training. New technologies are being utilized to reduce training time. Certain programmatic roles and functions traditionally assumed by colleges and universities are increasingly becoming the province of corporate entities. Simply put, the only certainty, oxymoronic though it may be, about the training and development field is the pace and the degree at which change occurs.

In the remainder of this paper some of the more important of these trends are discussed; several specific examples of the new types of business and industry-based training organizations are examined; and finally specific suggestions for action and research that are based upon this information are offered.

CORPORATE TRAINING IN AMERICA

A variety of data exist which describe the scope and depth of corporate training activities in America today. Nell Eurich in her recent work for the Carnegie Foundation, Corporate Classrooms - The Learning Business (Eurich, 1985) provides one of the most comprehensive discussions of trends and issues in the field of corporate education that is available today. One of the more interesting portions of this work discusses the scope of training and development and the related expenditures being made to support such activities. While estimates vary from as low as 40 billion dollars annually (ASTD in Eurich, 1985), to Tom Gilbert's 100 billion dollar estimate in his 1976 study, (Gilbert, 1976) to the more recent estimate of $200 billion (Plot, 1986), it is sufficient to say that American employers are annually investing a significant amount resources in training and development activities. Viewed another way, American employers training and development expenditures are estimated to equal the entire net worth of the nation's colleges and universities (Hodgkinson, 1981). Organizations such as AT&T spent nearly three quarters of a billion dollars in the late seventies to support training and development activities (Eurich, 1985). IBM in the mid '80s estimated their expenditures to be approximate $700 million dollars annually.(Greenwald, 1983) While others (Spikes, 1987, and 1986b) have studied corporate training-related expenditures and have continued to find varying estimates of of annual investments, the important point to note in this discussion is the continual escalation of expenditure levels over time and the degree of ongoing investment that is being made by this nation's employers in preparing employees to function well in the workspace. It is interesting to note as well that of these expenditures, it has been estimated that more than 3 billion dollars were spent annually as recently as 1983 for training services provided by outside agencies such as colleges and universities consultants and the like. (Zemke, 1982).

In a current work, Moser and Seaman (1987) have studied the concept of business and industrial linkages with higher education institutions. In this work they found that the training budget in respondent organizations ranged from a low of $2,000 to a high of $22,000,000 per year. More significantly however they also found that of the respondent organizations, when viewed by company type, all but one spent "... more money on technical training than on professional development [activities] ." (Moser and Seaman,1987,p.225) In a study of its membership, the American Society for Training and Development found that of all trainers surveyed, 65 per cent were engaged in "hard side" or technical training, and 25 per cent were engaged in "soft side" or professional development training. (ASTD, 1986).

In addition to the trend toward increasing levels of expenditures being made in support of corporate training and development activities and the move to investing a greater proportion of these expenditures in technical training activities, several other trends are apparent and will be identified in the subsequent portion of this paper.

SOME CURRENT TRENDS IN CORPORATE TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

Recent data show that a number of interesting trends are occurring in the field of corporate training and development. Spikes (1986a) has reported that among the more significant of these trends is the movement of of business and industrial organizations to establish their own in-house and in some instances fully accredited undergraduate and graduate degree programs. Traditionally, two and four year colleges and universities have been responsible for providing accredited degrees at the associate, baccalaureate and graduate levels. Employees would seek out an appropriate institution to complete a degree in a field related to their work responsibilities. More recently as many as eighteen "corporate colleges" have come into existence and in many cases are offering accredited degree programs which are in direct competition with institutions of higher education. Hawthorne, Libby and Nash in a 1983 article identified fourteen of these institutions. More recently, Eurich's work (1985) has expanded and updated these data to include four more corporate funded and sponsored programs. Among the more well know providers of corporate-based degree are Arthur D. Little, Inc., General Motors through the G.M.I. Engineering and Management Institute, Rand Corporation and Wang Laboratories. Wilcox (1987) has also examined the status of corporate college and has described some of their key operational characteristics including their job-orientation, flexibility, sophistication of delivery system and quality of faculty.

The establishment of educational partnerships between colleges and universities and corporations is another emerging trend in the field of training and development. Spikes (1986a and 1986b) has examined the nature of such partnerships and have offered recommendations for the establishment of such successful partnership arrangements. Moser and Seaman have also examined the nature of partnership arrangements and have offered several specific findings related to these arrangements including: 1) training budgets surveyed in their study were not always in proportion to corporate size; 2) a majority of training-related expenditures were spent on technical training first and secondly on professional development activities using primarily in-house resources; and 3) credit-related and custom designed courses are most often thought of as being the type of educational experience sought by training managers from college and university based providers.

In addition to these issues three other major trends are in evidence today in the field of corporate training and development. First, in a recent survey performed by the American Society for Training and Development of Fortune 500 Corporations, the use of technology in training was identified as being the most significant factor in the future. (ASTD, 1986) Clearly use of computer-based instruction, video disc and satellite instructional methodologies are taking an increasing more important place in the training and development field. Secondly, training managers and increasing being asked to justify training-related expenditure in terms of return-on-investment (ROI) calculations. Finally a clear and distinct emphasis is being placed upon increasing the levels of on the job occupational and functional literacy among workers. (Spikes and Cornell, 1987)

IMPLICATIONS

What does this information mean to the human resource development practitioner of today and tomorrow? Several conclusions can be drawn.

1) With the continuing increase in expenditures for training and development activities and the resultant demands for program-based cost justification, comes a clear need for HRD professionals to be able to analyze and show direct impact of their programs on corporate profitability;

2) HRD professionals and their college and university-based counterparts seeking to develop effective educational partnerships must begin to develop a greater understanding of the values, issues and of each other's work world;

3) Effective research must be conducted in order to demonstrate the relationship of learning, technology productivity and return on investment;

4) Ongoing efforts and increased expenditures must be made in the areas of occupational and functional on the job literacy; and

5) Continuing efforts must be made to meet the technologically-related training needs of American corporations and industries.

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COMMUNTY LEADERSHIP: A RESEARCH-BASED THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK*

Lela Vandenberg, Manfred Thullen, and Frank Fear
Department of Resource Development
Natural Resources Building
Michigan State University
East Lansing, MI 48824-1222**

Abstract

Adult and community educators who provide training for local leaders are hindered by a lack of knowledge of, and access to, research-based findings on effective community leadership. The paucity of research compounds the problem. One response to this problem was a 2 1/2 year study of research-practice linkages in community leadership development (CLD) programs in the Cooperative Extension Service (CES), a major adult education organization in the U.S. The primary goal of the study was to determine how to strengthen linkages between research efforts on CLD and CLD programs. A result of the project was a theoretical framework for community leadership that is based on a synthesis of major approaches to leadership theory and research, research on community leadership, and the results of an empirical study conducted during the project. The theoretical framework explains three major components of leadership: **perception**--the set of beliefs each group member holds regarding the characteristics of effective leaders; **property**--the characteristics attributed by group members to persons perceived as effective leaders; and **process**--the use of noncoercive influence to facilitate group accomplishment of valued goals. The framework explores the meaning of each of these components in terms of the elements contained in each. It is intended as a curricular guide for CLD trainers and program designers, to be drawn upon as relevant to a particular group of trainees.

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** Correspondence can be sent to any of the authors at the above address.

COMMUNITY LEADERSHIP: A RESEARCH-BASED THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In the wake of changing federal policy, local communities are finding it more and more necessary to draw upon indigenous resources, both material and human, to deal with local problems and quality-of-life issues. Therefore, there is a growing need for capable leaders in our communities and local organizations. Adult and community educators are often called upon to respond to this need by providing training for local leaders who are attempting to organize and mobilize their peers for concerted community development efforts. However, these educators often have little knowledge of, or access to, research-based findings on effective leadership, and particularly, effective leadership within the context of non-hierarchical community groups and voluntary organizations. The paucity of research on *community* leadership compounds the problem.

One response to this problem was a 2 1/2 year study of research-practice linkages in community leadership development (CLD) programs in the Cooperative Extension Service (CES), a major adult education organization in the U.S. The major goal of the study was to determine how to strengthen linkages between research efforts on CLD and CLD programs conducted by a major adult education organization. The project involved a comprehensive search of the leadership literature base, the development of a preliminary conceptual model of CLD program content and design, and an empirical study of the attitudes and practices of adult education professionals involved in conducting CES CLD programs. The data were collected via a mail questionnaire.

Approaches to Leadership

The review of the leadership literature led to the identification of five major approaches to leadership theory and research: trait, behavior, situational, transactional, and attributional. These are distilled from research in psychology and business.

The first three approaches might be characterized as *leader-centered*. The **trait** approach has focused on identifying specific *characteristics* associated with effective leadership. The **behavior** approach has attempted to describe specific *behaviors* associated with effective leadership. And the **situational** approach, (currently receiving much attention in the literature and highly favored by many in business), focuses on how *situational variables* influence or mediate the effect of leader traits and behaviors on followers. (For a review of this literature, see Jago, 1983; or Vandenberg, et al., 1985.) All three approaches share a basic assumption: that the goal of leadership is to influence followers to behave in certain ways. Thus, leadership effectiveness might be defined as the ability to get followers to do what the leader wants. These approaches could be pictured as follows:

(1) Trait Approach: leader traits ---------> follower behaviors

(2) Behavior Approach: leader behaviors ---------> follower behaviors

(3) Situational Approach: leader traits + behaviors ---------> and situational variables ---------> follower behaviors

The next two approaches are more follower-centered, without diminishing the importance of the leader's influence. The **transactional** approach emphasizes the mutual influence of followers and leaders on each other, and focuses on the process through which leaders naturally emerge in the course of a group's interaction (Hollander, 1978). This approach views leadership as a transaction or an exchange in which leaders must earn leadership status by demonstrating their trustworthiness and competence, and by helping a group achieve its own goals.

The fifth approach--**attributional**--has been called the emerging paradigm in leadership research (Hunt, 1984). According to this approach, leadership is a perceptual construct or "implicit theory" that exists in the minds of each person (Calder, 1976). Leadership, then, is a relative phenomenon, determined by the perceptions of each follower and their evaluations of the leader's efforts. Thus, the attributional approach focuses on followers' influence on leaders, and leaders' responses to followers' needs and desires for leadership (Green and Mitchell, 1979). The above two approaches can be pictured as follows:

(4) Transactional Approach: leader <------> follower

(5) Attributional Approach: follower <------> leader

In trying to apply these approaches to community situations, it became clear that a synthesis of approaches was needed to represent the complexity of leadership in non-hierarchical voluntary community organizations. Such a synthesis could combine a focus on the followers (their needs and desires for leadership), a focus on the leaders (the characteristics and behaviors required for effective leadership in certain situations), and a focus on the dynamics of leadership (the interaction among followers, leaders, and situational variables). The need for such an approach lead us to develop a research-based theoretical framework of community leadership. The framework, described below, is based on current research in leadership and community leadership, and on the results of the empirical study.

The framework is extremely relevant for both the task of training leaders in communities, and the task of being an effective adult educator in facilitating leadership development. It is intended as a curricular guide for CLD trainers and program designers. We envision adult educators using sample scenarios, emanating from the experiences and problems of the participants themselves, as a means to involve participants in analyzing situations and applying principles and content from the framework. As such, it is a comprehensive guide to be drawn from as relevant. (For a more detailed explanation of the framework, see Vandenberg, et al., 1987).

Theoretical Framework of Leadership Within Voluntary Community Organizations

Our theoretical framework consists of three major components--perception, property, and process. As a **perception**, leadership is the set of beliefs that each group member holds regarding the behaviors and qualities characteristic of effective leaders. As a **property**, leadership represents the qualities attributed by group members to persons perceived as effectively (or potentially) influencing the goal achievement process. As a **process**, leadership involves the use of noncoercive influence to facilitate group accomplishment of valued goals. The framework explores the meaning of each of these components in terms of the elements contained in each and describes the research associated with each.

Leadership as a Perception

To be successful, leaders must be able to answer two key questions: (1) How do followers conceive of 'good leadership'? and (2) What are their norms and expectations for leadership? The answers to these questions depend on two types of understanding. The first is understanding leadership as a **personal perception**: a set of desires for, and beliefs about, leadership held by each individual in a situation. These personal perceptions are called 'implicit leadership theories' (ILTs); and, according to attribution theory, we each have one. The second type is understanding leadership as a **group perception**: a group's norms and expectations about leadership. These two types of understanding enable a leader to determine what kind of leadership followers want and will respond to, and what sorts of behaviors will be perceived as trustworthy, competent, and leading toward goal achievement.

Perception is a thread woven among the various elements of the other two major aspects of community leadership--property and process. As such, **perception** has many facets. First, it is a defining element of the concept, leadership: leadership *is*, in part, a personal perception, relative to each concerned individual. Second, perception is a **property** that leaders must possess or develop. And third, perception is a **process** that leaders must be skilled at analyzing and engaging in.

Leadership as a Property

Since the early part of this century, many people studying leadership have tried to discover what the **property** of leadership consists of. In other words, they have been trying to define which characteristics, abilities, and behaviors are required for effective leadership in *any* situation. Some researchers contend that no such set of characteristics exists, and that the property of leadership consists of a wide range of characteristics or behaviors which leaders must choose from, depending on particular leadership settings. Defining this range has been their goal. We have identified three types of properties necessary for leadership in most situations. The first type is **characteristics**, including traits, skills, or abilities. The second type is **behaviors** and the third is **knowledge**.

In our view, it seems clear that certain **characteristics**, in combination, are closely associated with effective leadership, although perhaps not absolutely necessary in every situation. Six characteristics or abilities seem most important (although certainly others could be included here): *perceptivity*, *self-understanding*, *self-confidence*, *the desire to lead*, *competence*, and *flexibility*. These six provide a convenient framework which encompasses several high-rated concepts and perspectives included in our questionnaire. These also reflect findings from recent research on 'social intelligence,' and research stemming from the observation that some people (beginning in childhood) are 'natural' leaders who are effective in almost any situation.

Certain **behaviors**, in addition to the characteristics described above, are associated with leadership. Two broad categories of behaviors--task-oriented and relationship-oriented--are well-known and provide a useful way of describing, in general terms, how leaders relate to followers. Facility in each of these types of behaviors is necessary for effective leadership.

However, we also contend that these two broad categories represent a wide range of more specific behaviors that leaders must choose from, given each particular circumstance. Work by Gary Yukl (1981) on specific and measurable leader behaviors has resulted in a taxonomy of 19 **behavior categories.** We believe that, consciously or not, effective leaders are adept in the use of behaviors, or combinations of behaviors, from each of these categories--when required by particular circumstances of a situation. We have organized these behavior categories into six types, focusing on the leader's efforts to: (1) *facilitate friendly relationships*; (2) *motivate followers to achieve goals*; (3) *facilitate participation*; (4) *facilitate goal achievement*; (5) *provide benefits and rewards*; and (6) *establish external linkages*.

The third type of property consists of the **knowledge** required for effective community leadership. The types of knowledge are difficult to separate from the characteristics (traits, skills, and abilities) necessary for good leadership. Nevertheless, recognizing that characteristics and knowledge are somewhat intertwined, we have identified *five interrelated knowledge categories* necessary for effective community leadership. These five categories are knowledge of: *human behavior*, *the dynamics of leadership* (the interrelationships among leaders, followers, and situational variables), *the contexts of community leadership* (for example small groups or organizations), *the community development process* (how planned change is brought about), and *the specific task or substantive area at issue*.

Leadership as a Process

The **process** of leadership can be subdivided into two types of processes. One type, **interactional**, is founded on the concepts of 'mutual influence' and 'exchange'. The other, **analytical**, is based on the idea that a leader analyzes many relevant variables and makes a decision about a leadership strategy accordingly. Each of these types of processes are engaged in by *both* followers and leaders, and both involve, and even depend on, the other two aspects of leadership--*perception* and *property*.

The **interactional process**, or *mutual influence process*, might be called *awarding leadership status* from a follower's point of view. From a leader's point of view, it could be called *gaining and maintaining leadership status*. Both of these perspectives are essential because they highlight the dependency of leaders and followers on each other.

To be awarded leadership status, a leader must understand and conform to followers' perceptions about, and expectations for, leadership. If the leader does this successfully, s/he will be seen as *trustworthy*. The leader must also demonstrate *competence*, both in leadership and in the task at hand. Competence coupled with trust gives the leader *credibility*, and the freedom to disregard norms and act innovatively to achieve group goals. Successful goal achievement, in turn, reinforces and increases trust and credibility, and the leader is awarded even greater status. This cyclical process is the basic model of the idiosyncrasy credit theory (associated with the transactional perspective).

Analytical processes are used by followers in evaluating leaders, and by leaders in deciphering the causes of follower behavior and in weighing relevant variables to determine leadership and decision making strategies. For leaders, success in analytical processes is the key to success in the interactional process described above.

The analytical process *followers* use in evaluating leaders are attributional. Followers use their implicit leadership theories (i.e., their beliefs about and desires for leadership) as filters through which they judge a leader's behavior. Then, they attribute leadership to those who 'measure up' or fit their conceptions of good leaders. This again draws attention to the important influence of followers in determining leadership, and the importance of understanding leadership as a perception.

The analytical processes of *leaders* are quite complex, and involve the leader's capacity to sort out the interplay among leader, follower, and environmental variables. The ability to understand *leader variables* is related to the property of self-understanding: the more one posseses the property, the greater one's ability to correctly analyze leader variables. There are four types of leader variables: (1) strengths and weaknesses; (2) motives and feelings; (3) attributional tendencies; and (4) knowledge.

Drawing from attribution theory and several situational theories, we have identified five major *follower variables*: (1) perceptions of leadership; (2) motivation; (3) ability; (4) satisfaction; and (5) confidence. One of the leader's primary tasks, perhaps *the* primary task, is to increase the level of the last four variables in followers. To do this, the leader may sometimes need to delegate responsibility and provide opportunity for participation in planning and decision making, or sometimes need to provide more direction and authority. The choice of strategies, on the continuum from participative to directive, depends to a large extent on the leader's analysis of the five follower variables.

Environmental variables are perhaps the most varied and complex types of variables that leaders of voluntary community organizations must analyze, yet there is very little research to guide a leader in identifying, much less analyzing them. Nevertheless, we have developed a preliminary structure of environmental variables based on what is known, and what we intuitively feel is important. Categories of environmental factors relevant for voluntary community organizations might include: (1) *the task*; (2) *the group*; (3) *the organization*; (4) *other organizations*; (5) *the community*; (6) *historical factors*; and (7) *resources*.

Conclusion

Much of the theoretical profile outlined above is founded on basic tenets of the attributional and transactional perspectives. Both of these look at leadership from the *follower's* point of view, as well as from the leader's. The attributional perspective emphasizes how followers perceive ideal leadership and evaluate actual leaders, while the transactional perspective focuses on the process through which followers confer leadership status. Such a follower-centered outlook is essential for effective leadership of voluntary community organizations, and constitutes the philosophical bias which undergirds our entire framework.

On the other hand, this is not to say that leadership for CD should disregard the influence of leader traits, behaviors, and analytical skills in helping a group achieve its goals. By synthesizing the different perspectives on leadership, we have attempted to forge a link between leader-centered and follower-centered approaches to leadership, and draw a more realistic picture of the complexity of leadership.

Finally, this study has shown that simplistic approaches to leadership development are not founded in research. Leadership is a very complex set of perceptions, properties, and processes. Of course, no CLD program should attempt to incorporate the complexity of leadership represented by the elements outlined in thie framework. Programs should be designed according to the needs and desires of each group of participants, with the framework serving as a curricular guide or 'menu'. Nevertheless, adult educators need to be aware of this complexity before attempting to translate isolated research findings into CLD programs.

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THE EFFECT OF AN INSERVICE INTERVENTION ON THE EDUCATIONAL ORIENTATION OF PART-TIME ADULT CONTINUING EDUCATION INSTRUCTORS

NANCY B. WEGGE
DIRECTOR, CAREER CONNECTION REGIONAL CENTER
MINERAL AREA COLLEGE
FLAT RIVER, MISSOURI 63601

THE EFFECT OF AN INSERVICE INTERVENTION ON THE EDUCATIONAL ORIENTATION OF PART-TIME ADULT CONTINUING EDUCATION INSTRUCTORS

ABSTRACT

This study investigated the educational orientation of part-time community college adult continuing education instructors. It was designed to determine whether instructors who have knowledge of adult learners and methods of helping adults learn as advocated in the literature, would demonstrate an educational orientation more closely aligned with those principles than would instructors who have not yet acquired this knowledge.

Inservice interventions of six hours and nine hours were presented to provide the two experimental groups with knowledge of andragogical methods of instruction. A control group received no inservice training.

The focus was on the actual behavior that the teachers demonstrated in the classroom. The educational orientation of each instructor was assessed personally and by their students. During the last class session the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) was administered to all individuals in the two experimental groups and in the control group. A form of PALS adapted for student use was administered to each of their students. PALS measures the extent to which instructors accept and practice the collaborative mode of teaching which is widely supported in the adult education literature. Research results will be presented at the 1987 Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference.

THE EFFECT OF AN INSERVICE INTERVENTION ON THE EDUCATIONAL ORIENTATION OF PART-TIME ADULT CONTINUING EDUCATION INSTRUCTORS

This paper deals with research designed to determine whether instructors who have knowledge of adult learners and methods of helping adults learn as advocated in the literature, will demonstrate an educational orientation more closely aligned with those principles than instructors who have not yet acquired this knowledge.

Community colleges generally espouse three programmatic missions: 1. college or university parallel programs leading to an associate in arts degree, 2. occupational programs leading to an associate in science degree, and 3. continuing education programs offered as non-credit and leading to no degree (Gollattscheck, 1983). It is the teachers of this third mission, serving adult students, who were the subject of this research. Most of these instructors, who now outnumber full-time community college teachers, are primarily engaged in other occupations and view teaching as either a secondary career or as supplemental income.

Of special concern is the educational orientation of these part-time instructors, and its appropriateness for their particular teaching/learning situation. There is a growing body of research which examines the differences between teaching adults and pre-adults (Beder & Darkenwald, 1982, and Gorham, 1985). Are these teachers aware of the methods suggested for helping adults learn? Do they recognize differences between pre-adult and adult learners? Is there a way that these instructors could be provided this information so that their selected method of instruction is most appropriate for the adult learners in their classes?

Few continuing education programs for part-time instructors are designed to help instructors deal with the adult learner. One study (Hampton, 1982) that measured the effect of part-time instructors' use of andragogical teaching strategies indicated a positive correlation between the use of these andragogical strategies and the students' perceptions of instructor competence. In her research on how adult educators perceived they had acquired their individual teaching styles, Williams (1985) concludes, "It would seem that many educators, recognizing the inadequacy of their preparation for teaching, perceive a need for more formal opportunities to develop competence as teachers of adults. This study suggested that adult educators are learning their classroom approaches without adequate understanding of their students or of appropriate teaching strategies and that they may be receptive to institutional intervention designed to help them increase their effectiveness with adult students." (p. 171).

Research shows that it is generally agreed that:

1. Adult learners differ from children in learning situations.
2. There are differences between pedagogical and andragogical theories.
3. Adult continuing education instructors are generally subject matter specialists who have little or no knowledge of adult learners or adult learning theories. (Knox, 1979 p. 44)

Despite the general agreement that exists about the preceding concepts, a review of the literature shows that most studies in this area have been surveys to determine either which adults enroll in continuing education classes and why, or which adults teach continuing education classes and why.

Few efforts to provide part-time adult continuing education instructors with knowledge of adult learners or andragogical assumptions have been documented, and even fewer have been evaluated for effectiveness. Studies designed to measure the educational orientation of adult educators have been correlational studies which measured existing conditions.

This study was designed to add to the data concerning adult educators and their actual behavior in the classroom. It was hypothesized that:

Hypothesis I: Part-time adult continuing education instructors who have participated in an inservice intervention which presents the assumptions of andragogical models of learning will show a significantly higher andragogical orientation than instructors who have not received the training.

Hypothesis II: Students of part-time continuing education instructors who have participated in an inservice intervention which presents the assumptions of andragogical models of learning will indicate that their instructors show a significantly higher andragogical orientation than students of instructors who have not received the training.

The hypotheses were tested using a randomized subjects, posttest-only control group design with two experimental groups. The independent variable was inservice training to create awareness of andragogical methods of instruction. The dependent variable was andragogical orientation of the instructors as measured by the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS). This instrument was designed and validated by Conti (1979).

The experimental phase of the study assessed the effectiveness of an inservice training program. Instructors of adult continuing education classes were selected to participate in one of two training series. The training was designed using the theories of adult education and was itself conducted in line with these principles.

The first group of instructors received a three hour block of inservice training the week before their classes began. This training focused on the assumptions of the andragogical model of learning. Instructors were given information about adult learners and techniques for classroom use in an adult learning situation. Work in small groups provided opportunity for questions and discussion of the material.

During the following two weeks, instructors were able to practice these new behaviors in their classroom setting. A second three hour training session was held during the third week of classes. It presented additional assumptions of adult learning theories and accompanying classroom techniques. Instructors shared problems and successes encountered during the first weeks of class as they implemented the newly learned techniques. Again, instructors had an opportunity during the remaining class sessions to implement the new behaviors.

During the last class session, the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) was administered to each instructor in this group. A form of PALS adapted for students use was administered to students in attendance at the last class session.

Assessment was completed during the last class session rather than during the treatment to give instructors time to put into practice new learning, and to allow students the benefit of the complete course length to observe the instructor's methods of instruction. Assessment measured both the teacher's self perception and the students' perception of the teacher's behavior.

For the second group of instructors the only variable was the amount of time available to help achieve each objective for a total inservice time of nine hours. Work in small groups was supplemented during each session by the viewing of a segment of the video "Tricks of the Trade." This video was produced by the Adult Education Department of the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education and presents adult education principles for use by teachers of adults. During the last class session PALS was administered to each instructor and to all students in attendance.

This researcher hypothesized that the objective identified for the inservice could be accomplished during six hours of training.

The video was added to determine whether a visual component would change the training's effectiveness. The literature (Carrea, 1984) shows a nine-hour inservice to be effective, and asks whether more training time would be more effective, or less training time equally effective. The time constraint to be considered when working with part-time adult continuing education instructors prevented a training program longer than nine hours from being tested.

A control group of instructors received no inservice training. During their last class session, they were also administered the PALS as were all their students in attendance.

Research results will provide information about:

1. Part-time adult continuing education instructors in a community college setting and the effect of an inservice intervention on their educational orientation.

2. The differences between an instructor's behavior as perceived by him/her self and as perceived by the students.

Data analysis will be completed by the 1987 Midwest Research-To-Practice Conference, and will be presented at that time. Copies of the research results may also be obtained by writing the author.

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Critical Thinking Ability as a Predictor of Success in a Non-traditional Master's Degree Program in Adult and Continuing Education

Frederic W. Widlak
Director of Field Research
National College of Education
2 South 361 Glen Park Road
Lombard, IL 60148

Abstract

This research-in-progress examines the predictive validity of the *Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal* (WGCTA) for forecasting master's degree students' attrition, achievement level, thesis progress, and program completion time in a field-based accelerated program in Adult and Continuing Education (ACE). In the fall of 1986, National College of Education (NCE) changed one of the admission requirements for this program from satisfactory performance on the *Miller Analogies Test* (MAT) to similar performance on the WGCTA. The appropriateness of the MAT content for NCE's non-traditional students was questioned and the WGCTA was chosen as an alternative. The current issue is the relative forecasting efficacy of the MAT and the WGCTA among predictor variables such as sex, age, race, marital status, geographic area, undergraduate major, time since baccalaureate degree, type of undergraduate institution, and junior-senior GPA. The results of multiple regression analysis and multiple discriminant analysis will be compared for the MAT and WGCTA.

CRITICAL THINKING ABILITY AS A PREDICTOR OF SUCCESS IN A NON-TRADITIONAL MASTER'S DEGREE PROGRAM IN ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

The Program

The field-experience master's degree program in Adult and Continuing Education (ACE) at National College of Education (NCE) was established in 1982. Since its inception this ACE program has enrolled about 150 students in clusters of about 15 students each. The cluster acts as a support group, drawing from each student's on-the-job experiences, as the entire group follows an accelerated schedule of weekly classes and individual study and research over a 13-month period. Each cluster is led by a primary instructor who teaches most of the 16 courses and serves as the thesis advisor to each student. Some of these 4- or 5-week courses are taught by secondary instructors who specialize in certain areas of expertise.

The Miller Analogies Test

From the program's beginning until the fall of 1986, the admission requirements included a satisfactory score on the Miller Analogies Test (MAT), ". . . used for many years in screening students applying for admission to programs of graduate study at colleges and universities . . ." (The Psychological Corporation, 1981, p. 5). The MAT manual describes it as

> . . . 100 analogy items based on many areas of knowledge including literature, social sciences, chemistry, biology, physics, mathematics, and general information. The examinee is not required to be a specialist in any of these areas. An applicant for graduate school or for a high-level industrial position will have been exposed to much, if not all, of the precise information needed. The test items require the recognition of relationships rather than the display of enormous erudition. . . (p. 5)

The publisher's claims notwithstanding, after 4 years' experience with the MAT, the NCE ACE faculty concluded that a major reason for its lackluster performance as a predictor of student achievement in that specific program was indeed that the MAT places a strong premium on a vocabulary amassed through book learning in a traditional liberal arts curriculum. The majority of NCE's ACE applicants have baccalaureate degrees outside of liberal arts and thus appear to be "culturally disadvantaged" for the MAT. These applicants also tend to be older and away from formal education longer than the applicants to more traditional graduate programs who probably comprise the bulk of the subjects in the MAT norm groups.

The search for an alternative to the MAT led to a review of the competencies to be attained by the students in the ACE program. The faculty agreed that the ability to think critically was central to the adult educator's role and more likely to indicate probable success in the ACE program than would academic aptitude as operationalized by scores on the MAT or the Graduate Record Examination (GRE).

The Watson-Glaser Test

The Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal (WGCTA) was adopted as the admission test of choice not only for the ACE program, but also for the master's degree program in the Management and Development of Human Resources (MDHR), which is also delivered through a field-experience model. The WGCTA (Watson & Glaser, 1980) consists of 80 items in five sub-tests covering these critical thinking skills:

A. Inference: Each exercise begins with a statement that the examinee is to regard as true. This is followed by a series of inferences. The examinee decides whether the inferences are true, probably true, probably false, or false, or if there are insufficient data to form a judgment.

B. Recognition of Assumptions: Statements are followed by proposed assumptions. The examinee decides whether the assumptions are taken for granted in the statement or not.

C. Deduction: The examinee decides whether a series of conclusions do or do not necessarily follow from statements that are to be regarded by the examinee as true without exception.

D. Interpretation: The examinee weighs the evidence presented in short paragraphs and decides if the proposed generalizations are or are not warranted.

E. Evaluation of Arguments: A series of questions are followed by arguments; the examinee decides whether each argument is strong or weak.

The test items include problems, statements, arguments, interpretations, and data similar to those that are encountered on a daily basis at work, in the classroom, and in newspaper and magazine articles.

The WGCTA calls for responses to two different kinds of item content. Items having "neutral" content deal with the weather, scientific facts or experiments, and other subject matter about which people generally do not have strong feelings or prejudices. Items having "controversial" content, although approximately parallel in logical structure to neutral items, refer to political, economic, and social issues that frequently provoke very strong feelings. There is no known study guide or preparation book for the WGCTA.

The Validity Issue

The MAT manual (1981) reports the results of two studies producing Pearson r coefficients between the MAT and WGCTA. The 86 graduate students in English in a southern university and the 49 managers in a small manufacturing firm both yielded correlations of .55, which is significant at the .01 level for both samples. Thus about 30% of the variance in the MAT and WGCTA is shared, as shown by these studies.

The routine use of WGCTA as a predictor of academic outcomes at the collegiate level seems to be undocumented in the professional education literature. It is probably safe to assert that NCE's use of the WGCTA as an admission test for an ACE master's degree program is unique. The need is clear that this practice should be systematically evaluated for predictive validity.

The two general research questions to be answered by this study are:

(1) What is the effectiveness of the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal (WGCTA) as a predictor of attrition, achievement level, thesis progress, and program completion time for a field-based master's degree program in Adult and Continuing Education (ACE)?

(2) Do the WGCTA scale scores (Inferences, Recognition of Assumptions, Deduction, Interpretation, and Evaluation of Arguments) have diagnostic value in predicting the four outcome criteria?

Standard Operating Procedure

A general information sheet about the WGCTA is included with the application materials given to each person who inquires about the ACE program. The WGCTA is group-administered by NCE personnel under controlled conditions with a 50-minute time limit. The total raw score and a percentile rank based on a college norm group are reported via letter to the student and to the Office of Admissions. The faculty of the applicant's degree program determines the score level required for admission.

The only routine exceptions to the requirement for submitting a WGCTA score are:

(1) The applicant has already earned a masters' degree at an accredited institution, or

(2) the applicant has submitted an official transcript of scores on another standardized test acceptable to the faculty of the specific program.

In practice, a very small portion (less than 10%) of the applicants for any given cluster are exempt from the WGCTA requirement.

Validation Procedure

Data Collection. From the student admission folder are gathered demographic (sex, age, race, marital status, and home zip code), academic (undergraduate major, baccalaureate graduation year, the institution's Carnegie classification (1987) category, and GPA for junior and senior years combined), and admission test raw score (MAT or WGCTA) data, which serve as predictor variables.

From the academic records are gathered data for computing the ACE GPA, thesis progress, program completion status, and program completion time, which each serve as a criterion variable.

Data Analysis. The same statistical procedures are being used for two data sets: (1) those students who submitted MAT scores, and (2) those students who submitted WGCTA scores. Multiple regression analysis (for continuously scaled criterion variables) and multiple discriminant analysis (for discretely scaled criterion variables) are being used to assess the relative efficacy of MAT and WGCTA among the other predictor variables for forecasting each of the criterion variables.

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Environmental Fit of Nontraditional Undergraduates

Bonnie Koefoot Wilson, M.S.N.
Assistant Professor
College of Nursing-Lincoln
309 Fairfield Hall
University of Nebraska Medical Center
Lincoln, Nebraska 68588-0620

Robert Barrick, M.A., M.S.
Graduate Research Assistant
Department of Vocational and Adult Education
511 K Nebraska Hall
University of Nebraska-Lincoln
Lincoln, Nebraska 68588-0515

Kathleen Prochaska-Cue, M.S.
Assistant Professor
Institute of Agriculture and Natural Resources
116 Home Economics
University of Nebraska-Lincoln
Lincoln, Nebraska 68583-0801

Lavon Runnings Gappa, Ph.D.
Research Associate
Teaching and Learning Center
217 Benton Hall
University of Nebraska-Lincoln
Lincoln, Nebraska 68588-0623

Abstract

Concern for the viability of quality higher education is prompting many adjustments within institutions. However, the needs and expectations of nontraditional undergraduates has yet received relatively little attention. The present study examines the institutional satisfaction of nontraditional undergraduates 25 years and older through an examination of five components of higher education: administrative process; professors and educational process; campus resources; physical environment and campus life. The sample for this study consisted of 100 nontraditional undergraduate students at a large midwestern university. The Likert format questionnaire was composed of 35 items divided evenly over the five institutional components. The overall survey response indicates that today's nontraditional undergraduate is significantly different from the nontraditional undergraduate surveyed in previous studies. The new student is more institutionally satisfied, socially assimilated and environmentally aware than previous studies indicate. Nonetheless, in order to provide quality higher education, universities must continue to improve upon present programs and provide the environmental fit which these students need to learn and grow.

Environmental Fit of Nontraditional Undergraduates

Declining enrollment, decreasing resources, and changing needs in society are significant issues on the college and university campus today. Student anxiety over prospects for employment and opportunities for advancement, and institutional concern over future change and staff needs are visible. Concern for the viability of quality higher education is prompting many adjustments within institutions. However, the needs and expectations of nontraditional undergraduates has received relatively little attention. Clearly, the problems and issues facing nontraditional undergraduates have multiple causes and implications. Although the failure of many institutions to recognize this dissatisfaction is only one relevant issue, it is an important one.

In recent years the concept of "environmental fit" has gained prominence in the fields of psychology, architecture and design. The term describes the level of ability individuals possess that enables them to cope with their environment. Environmental fit deals not only with skills but levels of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the individual's current situation; therefore, it is an appropriate term when thinking of nontraditional student needs in the university environment.

To the knowledge of the present authors, research that systematically measures nontraditional student satisfaction with the institution has not been completed. Therefore, the purpose of the study is to measure the institutional satisfaction of nontraditional undergraduates 25 years and older through an examination of five components of higher education: administrative process, professors and educational process; campus resources; physical environment and campus life.

Methodology

The sample for this study was the nontraditional undergraduates at a large midwestern state university. The convenience sample was obtained at various locations on campus, including classrooms in different colleges, lounges in various buildings, and the student union. The sample consisted of 100 students ranging in age from 25-54, with approximately two-thirds under the age of 34. There were 46 males and 54 females. Of the total number of subjects 39 had never been married and 53 had no children presently living in the home. Academic majors appeared to be evenly distributed throughout the university. Salaried employment ranged from none to full time and reported household income spanned $10,000 or less to $30,000 or above. Eighty-six students indicated an interrupted pattern of college enrollment, while 70 students reported they had attended more than one university.

The questionnaire is comprised of 35 Likert format items divided evenly over the following five components of institutional satisfaction: the administrative process, professors and the educational process, campus resources, physical environment and campus social life. The Likert scale questionnaire was piloted in multiple sections of an introductory level undergraduate English class. The literature and a panel of experts in adult education determined whether the items had content validity. Cronbach's alpha was used to assess the homogeneity or internal consistency of the instrument. Cronbach's alpha for each of the five components were as follows: administrative process, .69; professors and educational process, .85; campus resources, .47; physical environment, .54; and campus social life, .42. A reasonable Cronbach's alpha of .80 for the entire scale was obtained. Since the campus social life component was not correlated to the other four components, it was deleted from further analysis. Cronbach's alpha reliability estimate for the composite score, excluding campus social life was .82. Each item of the questionnaire was scored on a scale from 1 to 5; a score of 1 indicated the most satisfied response, and a 5 indicated the least satisfied response. A satisfaction index was obtained for each of the five components as well as for the institution as a whole. In addition, various demographic data of age, gender, marital status, number of children living with respondent, hours employed, household income, educational patterns and number of institutions attended after high school were assessed.

Results

The means and standard deviations for administrative process (AP), professors and educational process (EP), campus resources (CR), and physical environment (PE) and a total score (TS) were calculated. The *administrative process* component results demonstrate the two areas in which the nontraditional undergraduate is most satisfied, these include drop-add procedures and the grading system. The two areas with which the students are least satisfied are the effectiveness of academic advising and the availability of career information. *Professors and the educational process* component responses indicate the professor's knowledge of subject matter and willingness to help are the most satisfying areas for the nontraditional undergraduate. Testing procedures and the failure of professors to provide motivation are the areas in which the students are least satisfied. The *campus resources* component findings indicate two areas in which nontraditional undergraduates are most satisfied: access to university news and a place to study on campus. In contrast, the respondents are least satisfied with counseling services and parking. The response to the *physical environment of the university* component reveals the nontraditional undergraduate as being generally satisfied with safety on campus and with union food service hours. Nontraditional undergraduates are least satisfied with campus lighting and the institutional classroom decor.

A multivariate analysis of variance was used to analyze the main effects for income ($10,000 or less, $10,001-$30,000, $30,001 or above), hours employed (0 hours, 1-20 hours, 21-39 hours, and 40 hours and above), and number of children living with the respondents (children, no children) and the two-way interactions and three-way interactions of the independent variables on the four dependent variables (administrative process, professors and the educational process, campus resources and physical environment). No significant interactions or main effects were found.

A multivariate analysis of variance was performed for the independent variables--age (25-29, 30-34, 35 and older), marital status (married, not married), and number of children living with respondent (children, no children), and two-way interactions and three-way interactions of the independent variables on the four dependent variables (administrative process, professors and the educational process, campus resources, and physical environment). A significant main effect for age was found ($F[8,172] = 2.29$ $p \leq .023$). Univariant followups indicate this difference to be for the dependent variables, campus resources ($F[2,89] = 6.55$, $p \leq .002$) and physical environment ($F[2,89] = 3.33$, $p \leq .040$) only. Tukey followups indicate that the age group 25 to 29 years is significantly less satisfied than the age group 35 years and older, ($\bar{x}_{25-29}$ =19.08, $\bar{x}_{35+}$ = 16.53) on the campus resource dependent variable and age group 25 to 29 years is significantly less satisfied than age group 30 to 34 years ($\bar{x}_{25-29}$= 19.08, $\bar{x}_{30-34}$ = 17.17) at $p < .05$. Tukey followups for the physical environment dependent variable indicate the age group 25 to 29 years is significantly less satisfied than age group 35 years and older ($\bar{x}_{25-29}$ = 18.03, $\bar{x}_{35+}$= 15.91) at $p < .05$.

A one-way multivariate analysis of variance was performed for the independent variable, educational pattern (began school, continuous enrollment to present; began school several years ago, left school, returned to complete academic work; began school several years ago, left and returned more than once; and other) using the same four dependent variables (administrative process, professors and the educational process, campus resources and physical environment). A significant main effect was found ($F[12,246] = .77$; $p \leq .015$). A univariant followup reveals this difference to be for the dependent variable, educational process only ($F[3,96] = 3.30$, $p \leq .024$). Tukey followups did not display significant differences between the groups at the .05 level.

A one-way multivariate analysis was also performed on the four dependent variables (administrative process, professors and the educational process, campus resources and physical environment) with number of institutions attended as the independent variable. The three categories for the number of institutions attended after high school include: one, two, three or more. No significance was found.

Discussion

The overall survey response indicates that today's nontraditional undergraduate is significantly different from the nontraditional undergraduate surveyed in previous studies. The new student is more institutionally satisfied, socially assimilated and environmentally aware than previous studies indicate. As cited previously, a total composite of institutional satisfaction for nontraditional undergraduates has never been performed. Findings in this study indicate 59% of students are satisfied with the institution, 41% are neutral and none of them are dissatisfied. There is a significant difference in the nontraditional undergraduate's attitude toward campus resources, professors and the educational process, and the physical environment of the institution when the age and educational pattern of the students is examined. Statistical analysis indicates that the 25-to-29-year-old nontraditional undergraduate is less satisfied than the 30-year-old-and-older student with the availability of campus resources, i.e.: locating a parking place, finding a place to study on campus, and gaining access to counselling services and university news. Moreover, statistical analysis reveals that the 25-to-29-year-old nontraditional undergraduate is less satisfied than the 35-year-old-and-older student with the physical environment of the institution; namely, safety walking alone, institutional food service hours, adequate campus lighting and educationally stimulating classroom decor.

The present study is designed to systematically measure nontraditional undergraduate satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the institution and the tabulated results of the study appear to challenge currently held and widely disseminated beliefs regarding nontraditional undergraduates. First, contrary to popular notion that nontraditional students are isolated, the students in the present study appear to make friends easily and have ready access to what is happening on campus. Second, the results of the present study indicate that nontraditional undergraduates are not as self-motivated as assumed by previous research (Dellman-Jenkins, Fruit & Lambert, 1984; Wolfgang & Dowling, 1981; Olski, 1980). The survey response indicates that nontraditional undergraduates need and expect motivation from academicians.

Conclusion

The present study suggests that the future of higher education will depend upon how effectively institutions respond to the impact of the projected increased enrollment of nontraditional students concurrent with the projected decreased enrollment of traditional students. The College Board Office of Adult Learning Services projects the enrollment of college students 25-years-old and over to increase by almost one million between 1982 and 1992 ("Collegeboard," 1985). Moreover, the "Collegeboard" underscores the declining enrollment of traditional college students; the estimated enrollment of college students 24 years old and under for 1982 was 7,580,000 and the study projects it to be 6,063,000 by 1992, a drop of 20%. That 20% represents a loss of one and one-half million students. The Bureau of Census attributes the decrease to the lower birth rate following the baby boom, the steadily increasing level of high school drop-outs and the rapidly declining number of minority students attending college ("At Risk," 1986).

No longer is the traditional student population the dominant force previously found in the 1960's and 1970's. Based upon the present survey and the projected increase of nontraditional undergraduates on the college campus, findings indicate that the quality of higher education may depend upon restructuring student services to provide for the needs of nontraditional undergraduates. The present study has examined several aspects of nontraditional student satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the university; namely, the administrative process, professors and the educational process, campus resources and the physical environment of the institution. In order to provide quality higher education, universities must continue to provide and improve upon:

1. Flexible means, times and places for enrollment and registration,
2. An easily understood grading system,
3. Competent, enthusiastic professors, willing to make themselves available to students,
4. A safe campus environment,
5. A variety of places to study on campus,
6. Flexible student union hours, and
7. Ready access to campus news and activities.

In addition, the university must expand present services and initiate new programs which:

1. Educate the teaching and administrative staff to the felt needs and the learning styles of nontraditional students,
2. Provide effective academic advisement,
3. Train career advisement personnel in the special needs of nontraditional students,
4. Provide counseling services at times and places which are accessible to nontraditional students,
5. Provide adequate short-term parking,

6. Provide adequate campus lighting and safe sidewalks for those attending evening classes, and
7. Maintain classroom decor that promotes a learning environment; especially, non-glare lighting, resource tools, comfortable working space.

Whether nontraditional undergraduates will continue to enroll in college will depend, in part, on the ability of each institution to meet the needs of these students. More than ever, colleges and universities need to care about the students they serve, and the "environmental fit" in which those students may learn and grow.

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THE USE OF RESEARCH AND THEORY BY 10 SUCCESSFUL ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAM DIRECTORS

George S. Wood, Jr. Ed.D.
Associate Professor
Adult and Community Education
918B -- Teachers College
Ball State University
Muncie, Indiana 47306

ABSTRACT

This descriptive study is an investigation of the on-going research/theory behavior of 10 school-based adult education directors. The question to be answered was "How do successful adult education program directors use research and theory, if at all, in their professional roles? A special self-analysis and reporting instrument was developed and used in the study. Data and findings are reported on information input and processing behaviors in typical program decision-making situations.

THE USES OF RESEARCH AND THEORY BY 10 SUCCESSFUL ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAM DIRECTORS

INTRODUCTION

What kinds of research and theory behavior really happen when practitioners are doing their day-to-day jobs? Do they consult existing published research or theory articles when they have decisions to make and problems to solve? Do they do research on their own? Do they look to colleagues or consultants for research information? Do they consciously select or formulate theoretical positions from which to proceed? Or are the day-to-day programming problems largely addressed without specific reference to research or theory of any kind? It is not uncommon to be told that adult education practitioners tend to consider most formal research and theory as relatively unimportant in the on-going scheme of things. Stephen Brookfield said as much in his keynote speech at the 1986 Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference and then went on to say that the decision-making investigations of practitioners are a kind of "research" that makes sense in the world of practice. So what do practitioners really do? The available information on the subject is thin at best.

This descriptive study is an investigation of the on-going behaviors of "10 successful school-based adult education directors" in the state of Indiana. The adult educators, five men and five women, were identified as unquestionably successful by an independent panel of knowledgeable professionals. The ten agreed to participate in an analysis of their normal professional behavior in decision-making situations with respect to information input and processing. Such a study population was chosen because it was assumed that research/theory usage might logically be linked to exemplary success. If consistently successful practitioners (program directors) displayed research apathy, then such claims about practitioners generally would be supported. The question to be answered in the study then was "How do successful adult education program directors use research and theory, if at all, in their professional roles?"

THE STUDY POPULATION

In addition to being singled out as successful and being five males and five females, the directors represented "experience" in the field. The mean number of years in adult education was 13.0 (14.2 for men and 11.8 for women). The mean number of years as program director/administrator was 10.4 (11.8 for men and 9.0 for women). Each of them administered a program with at least three different instructional emphases. All 10 directed ABE programs, 9 GED, 8 ESL, 7 Enrichment, 6 High School Credit, and 6 Job Training. All 10 held advanced degrees (9 masters and 1 doctorate).

METHODOLOGY

The study focused on research/theory behaviors. However, data was also collected on non-research behaviors in order to produce a balanced picture of the practitioner decision-making process. The data was collected in two stages: 1) completion of an instrument which reports on the results of a self-analysis of *typical information input behaviors* and *typical information processing behaviors*; 2) a follow-up interview with each subject to validate the data collected and get any further insights that they had about the study results. The instrument was developed for this study. It uses seven decision-making situations as the framework for the analysis: 1) daily routine operational decisions, 2) important operational decisions that are a normal part of the job, 3) new situation decisions involving factors encountered rarely or for the first time, 4) operational problem or crisis situation decisions, 5) short range planning decisions, 6) long range planning decisions, and 7) other specified decision situations. Subjects were asked to estimate the frequency with which they engaged in such "input behavior" as reviewing existing research/theory, conducting or commissioning their own research, gathering information by other than research means, asking advice from others, and reflecting on their own experience. They were also asked to estimate the frequency with which they engaged in such "information processing" behaviors as a casual scanning of information collected, a systematic review and analysis, the development of stated conclusions, the development of stated hypotheses or theories, and the recording of conclusions, hypothesis and theories for reference purposes. Finally, the directors were asked how often they used particular sources of information about existing research and theory (professional literature, higher education, professional organization conferences, state department/government events, consulting experts, peer professionals in other places/programs, colleagues in their own program).

RESEARCH-TO-PRACTICE RELEVANCE

A better understanding of the actual behaviors of practitioners with respect to research, theory, and decision-making seemed at the outset to be useful to both practitioners and researchers. The hope was that the study would aid in clarifying basic research-to-practice phenomena and provide a reference point for communications between practitioners and researchers (particularly in their consultant roles). The methodology and instruments were developed for this study in the hope they would also prove helpful to other practitioners and researchers.

THE RESULTS

Exhibits 1, 2, and 3 summarize the data collected about the frequent-to-consistent behaviors of the 10 directors in gaining input for decision-making, in processing the information, and in using various sources of information about existing research and theory. In each cell in the grids the figure represents the number of directors who reported they performed frequently-to-consistently in the manner described in the situation cited.

EXHIBIT 1

Number of Directors Reporting Frequent-Consistent Use
of Specific Input Behaviors in Decision-Making Situations

Decision-Making Situations	Information Input Behaviors				
	Reviews Existing Research/ Theory	Conducts or Comissions Own Research	Gathers Information by Other Than Research	Asks Input From Others (Advice, etc.)	Reflects Upon Own Past Experience
1. Daily routine operational decisions.	0	1	6	8	10
2. Important operational decisions that are a normal part of the job.	0	3	8	9	9
3. New situation decisions (involving factors encountered rarely or for the first time).	6	4	8	10	7
4. Operational problem or crisis situation decisions.	3	4	9	9	9
5. Short range planning decisions.	1	3	9	9	10
6. Long range planning decisions.	5	6	8	10	10

EXHIBIT 2

Number of Directors Reporting Frequent-Consistent Use of Specified Information Processing Behaviors in Decision-Making Situations

Decision-Making Situations	Information Processing Behaviors				
	Scan the Info Collected	Systematically Review and Analyze the Information	Develop Specific Conclusion That Can Be Stated	Develop Hypotheses or Theories That Can Be Stated	Record Conclusions Hypotheses Theories Developed
1. Daily routine operational decisions.	7	5	4	3	2
2. Important operational decisions that are a normal part of the job.	8	8	6	4	4
3. New situation decisions (involving factors encountered rarely or for the first time).	6	9	8	5	5
4. Operational problem or crisis situation decisions.	7	8	9	6	5
5. Short range planning decisions.	8	6	8	5	4
6. Long range planning decisions.	8	9	9	8	7

EXHIBIT 3

Numbers of Directors Reporting Frequent-Consistent Use of Specific Sources of Information About Existing Research/Theory

Source	Frequency of Use as Source of Existing Research/Theory Information
1. Professional literature	4
2. Higher education classes, workshops, etc.	6
3. Professional organization conferences, workshops, etc.	8
4. State Department/government conferences, workshops, etc.	7
5. Personal one-to-one contact with experts/consultants	7
6. Personal one-to-one contact with peers/professionals in other programs/communities	10
7. Personal one-to-one contact with colleagues	9

Given the data collected, the following are some of the findings which can be reported:

FINDINGS ABOUT INPUT BEHAVIORS

1. The directors most often review existing research/theory on a frequent-consistent basis (a) in "new situations" where the decisions that they must make involve factors encountered rarely or for the first time or (b) in connection with long range planning.

2. The directors rarely-never review existing research/theory for their normal on-going operational decisions, even the important ones.

3. The directors are more likely to conduct or commission their own research than to review existing research. They are most likely to conduct or commission such research in long range planning situations.

4. In new situations, however, the directors are more likely to review existing research/theory than to conduct or commission their own.

5. All of the directors use existing research and theory, four on an occasional basis only and the other six frequently-consistently in particular decision-making situations.

FINDINGS ABOUT INFORMATION PROCESSING BEHAVIORS

1. The directors are more likely to develop hypotheses or theories and record them in long range planning situations than they are in other decision-making situations.

2. There is no specific information processing behavior that every director uses on a frequent-consistent basis in any given decision-making situation.

FINDINGS ABOUT SOURCES OF RESEARCH/THEORY INFORMATION

1. The directors most often get their information about existing research/theory from peers (other professionals) in other programs or communities with a one-to-one contact process.

2. The directors least often get such information from the professional literature.

3. All of the directors rely upon multiple sources for such information on a frequent-consistent basis.

MEN-WOMEN COMPARISONS

Although the study was not done for purposes of comparing male behavior and female behavior, the data allowed for some comparisons that the readers may find of interest. The women more often than the men reported frequent-consistent reviewing of existing research and theory and conducting or commissioning research. Women also reported more frequent recording of hypotheses or theories developed. The men were somewhat more likely than the women to reflect upon their own experience in decision-making situations. The women were more likely than the men to use higher education classes, workshops, etc., as sources of information about existing research and theory. All other sources were cited about equally by men and women.

CONCLUSIONS

A study with a population as small and homogeneous as this one has limited value for generalization purposes. No claim is made that the findings represent wider realities in the field. On the other hand, the practitioners found the conceptual model for describing their decision-making behavior to be a useful and accurate one. The investigative model may thus merit wider usage in future research. The study results do appear to be an accurate portrayal of the behaviors of the 10 people studied. And these practitioners can hardly be said to be apathetic about research and theory.

MEASURING THE EFFECTS OF AN INTERACTIVE VIDEO ADULT LITERACY INSTRUCTION SYSTEM

George S. Wood, Jr., Ed.D
Associate Professor
Adult and Commmunity Education
918B -- Teachers College
Ball State University
Muncie, Indiana 47306

James H. McElhinney, Ph.D.
Professor of Curriculum
Chairman, Center for Lifelong Education
Ball State University
Muncie, Indiana 47306

ABSTRACT

This study presents the results of evaluation/research cone ontwo projects piloting the use of PALS (Principle of the Alphabet Literacy System), a computer-based literacy instruction program designed by IBM and the John Henry Martin Corp. to develop reading and writing skills of learners reading at the sixth grade level and below. The research was commissioned by the state to determine the system's potential for impacting statewide on the problem of functional illiteracy. It was conducted by a university research team of four people, two of whom are the presenters of this report on the results and methodology associated with the first of three instructional cycles to be studied.

Measuring the Effects of an Interactive Video Adult Literacy Instruction System

Introduction

PALS (Principle of the Alphabet Literacy System) is a computer-based literacy instruction program for adults and adolescents. PALS is designed to develop reading and writing skills of learners reading below the sixth grade level. The presentation of learning exercises is in a multiple media format including video, audio, graphics overlay, touch, text and synthetic speech. The learning process uses the "write to read" approach. The system, developed by IBM and the John Henry Martin Corp., was in its final stages of pilot testing when this study was conducted. It was scheduled to be on the market in early summer 1987. IBM's early testing of the system led it to claim that learners improve their reading skills by as much as three grade levels in a 20-week (100 instructional hours) period.

In the final pre-market piloting period, some 18 PALS labs have been established around the country, including two in Indiana, one on a university campus and the other in an urban office building in a different community. The two projects are operating through a cooperative arrangement involving IBM, the state government office of occupational development, a local alliance for jobs, and the university. A critical element in this piloting is a complete evaluation/research project conducted by the university, at the specific request of state government, to determine PALS' potential for making a statewide impact on adult literacy.

This study presents the results of evaluation/research done on the first 20 weeks (100 hours) instructional cycle at the two sites. The evaluation/research process will continue through two more cycles and conclude in June, 1988. Clearly, since the emphasis in the data collection and analysis is on issues specifically related to the use of PALS in various program settings throughout a state, the implications for practice are pervasive. State policy hangs in the balance to some degree. To the extent that the evaluation results are publicized more widely, the study may have national implications.

Representatives of both IBM and the John Henry Martin Corp. have said that this is the only full scale study being done by researchers at any site.

Methodology

The work was conducted by a team of four university faculty members, two reading specialists and two adult educators with research and evaluation credentials. This report was enabled by the two university adult education researchers, one of them being the team chairman.

The research/evaluation methodology was multi-dimensional. Data collection procedures include (1) classroom observations using a structured notation system, (2) student interviews, (3) teacher interviews, (4) reviews of instructional records and materials, and (5) interviews of project administrators. The design included triangulation procedures for addressing several of the critical questions about the performance of the PALS system. Pretesting and posttesting were done to determine changes in student reading levels, using the ABLE Test, a reading test normed for adults.

Interview and observation instruments were developed and field tested by the evaluation team. All four members participated in the process of validating the instruments and refining the data collection processes.

The report on the first instructional cycle was based upon data collected throughout the cycle. Interviews and observations were conducted at the midpoint and near the end of cycle. All classes at both sites were observed both times. Eighteen students (selected on a stratified basis by the evaluators) and all three teachers were interviewed. Monthly status reports were made by the teachers and reviewed by the data collection team. A pre-post reading test was conducted.

Study Population

A total of 72 learners were enrolled in the two pilot projects. They ranged in age from 14 years to 55 years, with a relatively even distribution of ages between the two extremes. Reading levels ranged from below grade one to grade six. There were 37 males and 35 females.

Study Questions

To address the informational needs of the audiences for this evaluation/research study, 34 specific questions were identified as focuses for the study. Among them were the following:

Does the program work equally well with learners of different ages? Different reading levels? Different sociological backgrounds? Different previous educational backgrounds?

Are there adult functional illiterates for whom the process is inappropriate or ineffective?

What makes students enthusiastic about the process?

What frustrates students or causes them concern?

How important is the "learning partners" feature? How does it impact upon learning?

What exactly does the teacher contribute to the process?

How much "teacher help" do learners need?
Can the program work without the teacher for some learners?

What competencies does the teacher use to effectively assist students?

What human/teacher behaviors are generally most effective? Most effective in particular situations?

How much can the amount of time available for each learning task and for each process be varied and still be effective?

Is the 20 weeks, 100 hours an optimum time frame for all learners? Most?

Would students profit from more than 100 hours in the program?

Can the program work as an open entry-open exit process?

How adequate are the testing procedures and materials that accompany the instructional program? What changes may be needed?

What is the range of reading improvement outcomes? What is typical improvement for learners?

Is the amount of reading improvement influenced by entry reading levels? Attendance patterns?

What reading improvements consistently occur? Word recognition? Comprehension? Motivation to read?

What levels of typing skills result? What computer skills and attitudes?

What writing (composition) skills do learners master?

What are the self-image outcomes?

What are the social/interpersonal outcomes?

What happens when a student is making little or no progress?

Are there identifiable patterns or factors related to lack of progress?

Preliminary Findings

At the conclusion of the first 20 weeks (100 hours) instructional cycle, the evaluation team analyzed the data collected. Several preliminary findings were supported by data collected by all four team members and therefore can be reported. Data in support of the reported findings came from multiple sources and collection techniques, appearing in the results of interviews, observations, and records reviews. Thus, the findings, although preliminary in nature, are regarded as having been substantiated by processes of triangulation. These initial findings will be treated as hypotheses to be tested in the second and third instructional cycles.

The preliminary findings are as follows:

(1) Adult non-readers and low level readers become enthused about reading and writing by their experiences with the computer. The technology enhances gains in reading and writing.

(2) Adult students are motivated and rewarded by the typing that they do immediately in the instructional process. It gives them a sense of success and "producing" from the outset.

(3) Adult students are "turned on" by the process of writing and typing their own stories in the second half of the instructional cycle.

(4) Self-image is a central factor in student motivation and success in the PALS program. Using a computer, typing, and writing original stories make positive contributions to self-image.

(5) The teacher plays a vital role in determining the impact of the PALS experience on the self-images of students. Consistently helping in "caring," "encouraging," and "respectful" ways was cited by both students and teachers as important teacher contributions to student progress.

(6) Students' need for the teacher is crucial and constant. The level of sophistication or success of students may change but doesn't diminish the importance of the teacher in the process.

(7) The teacher must be a trained professional, knowledgeable about adults as learners and special learning problems, skilled at motivating and rewarding, and have basic teaching and technology skills.

(8) The 20 weeks-100 hours instructional time frame is not optimum for all students. Some students can successfully complete the instructional process in less time. Many students especially those who start with no or limited reading and learning skills need substantially more instructional time than the 100 hours.

(9) A one-hour time frame for instruction each day is not optimum for all students or all learning activities. More flexibility in the length of learning sessions would be helpful to adult students. Varying degrees of task motivation and self-directedness among students makes a uniform time frame questionable.

(10) There is evidence to suggest that an open entry-open exit process is most appropriate for learners using the PALS program.

(11) The program does not work equally well with students who read at different levels. Although more investigation is needed to pinpoint where the differences lie, it appears that it works well in its present form with students who read at a grade level of one through five. It works less well with non-readers and readers at grade six level and higher.

(12) The most common student criticism of the program is that the story on the television screen "does not move fast enough" in the learning process, that is, the instructional process causes too much delay in the development of the story itself.

(13) The "learning partners" feature of the program is an effective element when the partners are well-matched in level of achievement and rates of learning. Most students see working with a partner as providing mutual support and assistance.

(14) The currently available reading progress measures (tests) are not adequate for purposes of this study. Test results often do not measure progress evidenced with other indicators of student growth.

(15) Some adult students improve their reading skills by as much as two grade levels in the relatively short period of 100 instructional hours.

(16) Adult students develop writing and typing skills that represent demonstrable improvements over previous abilities.

(17) There is observation and interview evidence that some participating adults enter the program with strong feelings of self-esteem and highly developed skills for coping with their reading deficiencies.

(18) Coping skills developed as non-readers continue to be used during participation in the program: "I tell people I'm taking a computer course at Ball State."

Adult Literacy, Cognitive Processes, and Empowerment

Deborah L. Young

Director, The UAW-Ford/EMU Academy Computer Project
Education Services Center
111 King Hall
Eastern Michigan University
Ypsilanti, Michigan 48197

Abstract

The focus of recent public attention has been on adults who have no or few skills or strategies to perform such fundamental tasks as reading road signs or following simple, written directions. As a result, the media blitz has made literacy a household word. Adult literacy councils and coalitions have been formed in many communities. Typically the goals of these groups are to create an awareness of the problem and to recruit clients and volunteers into existing adult literacy programs. The issue presented in this paper is whether or not these existing programs incorporate the insights from recent research on adult learning and cognitive processes.

Adult Literacy, Cognitive Processes, and Empowerment

In recent years public attention has been directed towards identifying adults who have no or few skills or strategies for reading work or home-related materials. Many adults have responded to this attention by calling the hotline numbers and asking for help with their reading problems or volunteering to tutor. Consequently, the number of adult basic education programs and volunteer agencies have increased (Detroit Free Press, 1987). The tutors and physical space for helping adults enhance their reading abilities are being provided through contributions of time and money from public and private sectors.

The issue presented in this paper is what happens to adults once they are enrolled in literacy projects. How are adults treated? What are the methods used to teach them to read? What are the contents and contexts of these reading lessons? Is the current information about cognition, adult learning, the reading process, and the writing process influencing the methods and materials used in adult reading programs? If jobs of the future will require a higher level of thinking, reading, and writing skills than those needed in most workplaces today (Brock, 1987), then are the teaching methods developing these cognitive processes and empowering adults to do what they want and need to do?

Concerns

To consider these questions, it is important to look first at recent insights about adult learning and about the reading process. Adult education literature suggests that adults need instruction that uses knowledge and skills gained from their life experiences. Instruction must also include the learners' definite goals for the outcome of each session (Goudreau, 1986; Kazemek, 1985; Rigg and Kazemek, 1985; Soifer and Simmons, 1986; Wangberg and Reutten, 1986). Furthermore, the ultimate result of instruction should be empowering adults with the abilities and confidences to carry out self-directed activities (Freire, 1974; Hunter, 1982; Knox, 1986). Because different methods of teaching produce different results, approaches need to be examined to see if they do use the adults' prior knowledge, are based on their goals, and really do empower them.

Recent research on cognitive processes have inspired a new look at approaches to teaching reading that might accomplish such results. Reading is more than a decoding process learned from filling in numerous workbook pages or identifying series of isolated sound-symbol relationships. "Reading is the process of constructing meaning through the dynamic interaction among the reader's existing knowledge, the information suggested by the written language, and the context of the reading situation" (Wixson and Peters, 1984).

Nevertheless, the teaching method backed by large institutions and organizations with the political and financial support appears to be phonics or a subskill approach as the major, if not the entire, basis for teaching reading to adults. Learners are all started at the same beginning point, with little or no value given to what each adult may already know due to life experiences and abilities. The content of the phonic and subskill lessons may have been changed to include adult situations, but the language representing those situations may be very unreal and artificial. This method will help the adult to read the materials used in the lesson. But will the learner be able to transfer this knowledge, skills, and abilities to the home or work environment? At what cost? When? Mikulecky, Ehlinger, and Meenan (1987) emphasize that lessons should include the types of literacy found in workplaces so adults may use the basic skills to solve problems and critically analyze situations.

Approaches Advocated in Professional Literature

What are the methods suggested by the literature for teaching adults to read? A search of the reading and adult education literature was conducted for documents published since 1980. The year 1980 was chosen to see to what extent recent studies on the reading process are reflected in materials about adult literacy. The term "adults" was defined as persons 16 years or older enrolled in non-traditional reading classes, i.e., classes other than those in the day-time high school or college setting.

While many documents on teaching adults have been published, only thirty-nine documents were found about teaching non-traditional adult learners to read. These documents include twenty-eight articles in journals, eight books or chapters within books, and three dissertations. This represents an average of four articles and one book published every year, with research studies averaging only one publication every two years. Table 1 presents a breakdown of the documents by year. Even though society has focused a lot of attention on the topic of literacy, adult educators have not published much recently about teaching adults to read.

The teaching methods in each document were identified. The methods appear to be divided into two major categories. The first category assumes the learners know nothing about language. The instruction is sound-symbol based, with major attention to phonics, sight words, and word families. Phonics lessons assume that learners need to learn the sounds for individual symbols before the learner can read isolated words and then sentences or paragraphs. Sight word lessons involve the learners in identifying specific words instantaneously before the individual letter sounds are examined or used in sentences. The emphasis of word families lessons is to identify words that follow a particular pattern. In each of these methods, the adults may read only sentences containing words that fit the principles of the method taught, i.e., Can Sam pat the cat? It takes time before the relevancy to the adult's own world is brought in to the lesson.

The second category assumes the learner knows something about language. The instruction is meaning based. This assumption permeates the instruction in language experience, comprehension strategies, and connected text approaches. Language experience aids learners in understanding language through the use of personally produced stories. A comprehension strategies approach involves the learners in a variety of techniques which all have understanding the text as a whole as the goal, but the focus is on the strategies. Connected text stresses the reading of continuous text in which the readers begin to understand the gestalt of the text and the focus is on the content. Each of these methods assumes that due to life experiences the adults already have knowledge of the alphabet and emphasizes that reading does make sense.

The authors of many of the documents suggested a combination of several methods. Table 2 shows the breakdown of the methods proposed by educators for teaching adults to read. There are forty-three references to meaning-based approaches while only eleven are given to sound-symbol approaches. Although the numbers are small, the literature is definitely focused more on the meaning-based methods.

The real question is whether the existing community literacy programs incorporate the insights from recent research on adult learning and cognitive processes. The literature supports meaning-based programs on a ratio of four-to-one. Do the actual teaching-learning programs reflect this same ratio?

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N 6|
u 5|                    x
m 4|                    x        x        x        x        x        x
b 3|    x      x        x        x        x        x        x        x
e 2|    x x    x        x        x        x x      x        x        x
r 1|    x x    x x x    x x      x x      x x      x        x        x
     A B S    A B S    A B S    A B S    A B S    A B S    A B S    A B S
     1980     1981     1982     1983     1984     1985     1986     1987
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Year of publication
A = Articles in journals
B = Books or chapters within books
S = Research study

Table 1. Types of documents on teaching adults to read published 1980 to 1987

```
N 6|
U 5|                                        x
M 4|                                        x               x
B 3|                        x               x               x
E 2|  x     x               x   x           x               x   x
R 1|  x x   x         x     x x x     x     x         x     x x x
      1 2 3 4 5 6     1 2 3 4 5 6     1 2 3 4 5 6     1 2 3 4 5 6
          1980            1981            1982            1983

N 6|
U 5|
M 4|
B 3|          x             x               x
E 2|        x x x           x               x x x           x
R 1|  x x x x x x     x     x x x     x     x x x           x x x
      1 2 3 4 5 6     1 2 3 4 5 6     1 2 3 4 5 6     1 2 3 4 5 6
          1984            1985            1986            1987
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Year of publication

Sound-symbol based approaches
1 = Phonics
2 = sight words
3 = Word families

Meaning based approaches
4 = Language experience
5 = Comprehension
6 = Connected text

Table 2. Methods suggested in documents on teaching adults to read published 1980 to 1987

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CONTRASTING CASES OF PARTICIPATION/MOTIVATION IN AN URBAN COMMUNITY BASED TRAINING PROGRAM AND AN ADULT EDUCATION GRADUATE CLASS

by

Jeff Zacharakis-Jutz

Project Coordinator
Lindeman Center, N.I.U.
188 W. Randolph, Suite 2817
Chicago, IL 60601

Graduate Student
Northern Illinois University

Abstract

The pupose of this research was to compare and contrast participation and motivation in two adult educational environments. The first was a university graduate level adult education class. The other was a community based intergenerational work experience ("I/WE") program in West Englewood Chicago. It matched young Black adults with retired craftspersons who trained them in minor home repairs.

The importance of this research stems from the fact few studies have been developed which compare students of different socioeconomic backgrounds. The methodology for this research is grounded in my own experience and observations of the two groups--in both of which I was a participant/observer.

My research suggests that motivation and participation of adult learners is not class dependent but, rather, is a reflection of a program's educational design. Traditional education is designed to individualized its learners, and maintain existing relationships between socioeconomic classes. The I/WE program was designed to increase participation and motivation by nurturing collective talents of adults in a poor marginalized neighborhood.

CONTRASTING CASES OF PARTICIPATION/MOTIVATION IN AN URBAN COMMUNITY BASED TRAINING PROGRAM AND AN ADULT EDUCATION GRADUATE CLASS

by

Jeff Zacharakis-Jutz
Lindeman Center, N.I.U.
Chicago, IL

Introduction

Adult education in Chicago, as elsewhere, is full of tragic consistencies. In spite of the multitude of life experiences, we are all faced with the same educational system which is suppose to serve everyone equally. Certain classes and groups live sheltered and predictable lives. Others exist in an arena where survival is in question and the future is bleak.

This paper is based on research which is grounded in my personal experience in two contrasting arenas of adult education. The first was a university graduate level adult education class which was composed of students who were successful in the traditional education setting. The other adult education environment was a community based, intergenerational work experience ("I/WE") program in West Englewood Chicago, a poor, Black neighborhood. It matched retired craftspersons with young adults, who were trained in minor home repairs. Most of the students in this program were high school pushouts, first offenders, and, in general, people who had not succeeded within a traditional education setting.

The contrasts between these two educational arenas and their actors were immense. Without intending to oversimplify these differences, the essence might be summerized as one group being comprised of education's (in the traditional sense) elite and society's privileged, and the other group being education's failures and society's marginalized. I discovered that many of the participants in the I/WE program were extremely bright people who in a different life experience would probably be in a graduate program. Ironically, the graduate students were being trained to develop, prescribe, administer, and work in adult education programs, in which most of the I/WE group will become potential clients.

The purpose of this research is to compare and contrast participation and motivation in these two educational environments. The importance of this research stems from the fact that most research on participation and motivation focuses on the traditional classroom or on leisure activities. Few studies have been developed which compare participation and motivation of students from different socioeconomic backgrounds. Hopefully, the ideas and themes which arise from this research will stimulate dialogue and further inquiry into the problems of participation and motivation.

Some Previous Research

Cross in Adults As Learners presents various studies which show that there is a significantly lower participation rate in organized adult instruction within the lower socioeconomic classes. (1981) Cross cites Johnstone and Rivera's research (1965) which concludes that "lack of interest" (p.55) is a major reason for the disparity in participation between "well-educated and poorly educated adults." Anderson and Darkenwald (1979) showed that "blackness and/or low income, in and of themselves, have little direct effects on participation." (p.58) Rather, low educational attainment and other factors associated with poverty seem to explain the lower participation rates among the underprivileged. Harry Miller's (1967) force-field analysis attempts to explain why socioeconomic status and participation are closely related. His needs hierarchy predicts "that members of the lower social classes will be interested primarily in education that meets survival needs." (p.112)

Methodology

Because little research has been done in the area of cross-cultural or cross-socioeconomic participation/motivation research, the methodology for this research is grounded in my own experience and observations. Conclusions were derived from comparing and analyzing these two groups through informal observation and formal interviews, and corroborated in follow-up interviews.

As a student in the graduate adult education class I was an integral part of the educative process. My role in the I/WE program was as an interim project coordinator for five weeks during the late summer and early fall of 1986. My duties included assisting the group in laying out daily assignments, assessing equipment and material needs, coordinating people, and planning. Since this period I have maintained involvement as a friend and advisor.

In both the graduate class and the I/WE program the interviews were done in group settings to allow for group responses and reactions to both the questions and answers. With this type of research the question always arises: given the amount of exposure I had with each group was I able to insure saturation in achieving the categories of comparison upon which I have drawn my conclusions? Hence, I cannot say that my conclusions are conclusive.

Descriptions of the Two Groups

There are some common characteristics within this graduate class which might be projected to all graduate students. First and foremost, everyone in the class was an educational "success story." And, everyone was successfully developing a professional career. The group included public school teachers, computer specialists, administrative nurses, working adult educators, and several full-time graduate students.

The backgrounds of the students were extremely diverse. All that was required of this class was that they have an interest in adult education. There was not much impetus for students to corroborate on their projects outside the classroom, even though the professor encouraged group endeavors.

The I/WE program was designed by Aimee Horton of the Lindeman Center in consultation with church and community leaders, young and old. By combining unemployed retired craftpersons and young unskilled youth, the project utilized two community resources. The program began with a residential workshop where the participants became acquainted with one another and learned about the program. This workshop was followed by a sixteen week training period. The students were not only trained in home repairs but also worked toward their GED with the help of retired public school teachers.

Out of this training experience, a smaller group of students decided to continue their training and began learning about worker owned co-ops. West Englewood does not have local contractors or home repair companies. As a result all previous minor repair work had been contracted by companies outside their area. The I/WE worker owned co-op offered the students an opportunity to use their newly acquired skills in their own community. During May, 1987, the I/WE worker owned co-op incorporated, involving 8 of the original 18 participants in the program.

Findings

The motivation for participation in both groups was, basically, "to get ahead." The participants in both groups were active learners, highly motivated to better themselves.

Within the graduate class, the most common reason for participation was to fulfill a need for graduate credit. This need was usually motivated by external pressures such as job advancement and a higher salary. The general consensus was that the degree and its associated benefits was the most important motivator of their involvement.

Several of the graduate students did say that going to school made them feel good and that they considered themselves to be professional students. Some noted that they were resentful, to different degrees, that they were forced to seek graduate degrees in order to advance in their chosen fields. Part of the reason for these feelings related to the perceived cost of participating. The most common cost or burden was time--time away from their families, jobs, social life, etc.

In the I/WE program the primary reason for student participation was, again, to get ahead. Many hoped to develop carpentry and repair skills, others sought only a means to earn an income. Several students noted that they became involved because their friends were. This peer involvement was important in promoting responsibilty and ownership of the co-op. In contrast, peer involvement played a far less significant role in the graduate class.

The hopes of becoming part of the worker-owned co-op promoted long-term planning. For some, the personal sacrifice to remain in the program was severe since they came from families with little money and resources. These problems were often compounded by personal histories which precluded self-confidence. Many of the students, as well as the retired craftspersons and tutors, viewed the vision of a co-op as an opportunity to make a positive contribution to their community.

A strong core of young people emerged from the group, providing the cohesive strength needed for its success. Interestingly, this core group was in constant contact with the dropouts, keeping them informed of the program's progress, trying to convince them to return, and sometimes succeeding in bringing them back. Their desire to succeed was so strong that they continued in spite of many barriers over which they had no control.

CONCLUSIONS

The lower participation rate in organized education among lower socioeconomic groups is not due to a lack of interest or motivation. Participants in both groups had a strong desire to "get ahead." Rather, the barriers which surround all educational programs are much greater for the poor and working class than they are for the educational elite. Graduate school is, in general, a social institution which is politically safe and predictable. In constrast, any new idea and program in the inner city is fraught with the problems of its community.

The graduate students were very much "I" oriented. How other students performed was not important in assessing their own educational achievements. This observation affirms Foucault's theory that individualization is a process which enhances and solidifies the structural foundation of the power elite. (Foucault, 1982) The individualizing nature of education places the poor and working classes at a disadvantage. The I/WE program attempted to overcome educational individualization. In contrast to an individual getting ahead in the graduate class, getting ahead was a group process in the I/WE program.

The people living in the poor neighborhood of West Englewood have a much lower resource and power base than people living in a university environment. As individuals this weak power base is accentuated. Using McClusky's concept of margin (1971), when poor people are brought together, to share their limited resources and talents, their margin will increase. This is the strength of the I/WE project, and at the same time a criticism of tradition education. Throughout the interviews the members of this group referred to their responsibility to each other and their community. This is in stark contrast to what the interviews revealed in the graduate class.

My research suggests that motivation and participation of adult learners is not class dependent but, rather is a reflection of the design of the educational program in question. Traditional education is designed to individualize its learners, reward only the most successful, and maintain exisiting relationships between socioeconomic classes. The I/WE program was designed to increase the levels of participation and motivation by nurturing the collective talents of adults in a poor, marginalized neighborhood. Possibly by redesigning education to nurture and strengthen existing community resources, the statistical variance of participation between the highly educated and the poor might be altered.

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